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ABSTRACT

This seminar report is composed of case studies of 11 countries that represent all four regions of the world (Asia-Pacific, America, Europe, and Africa) and a synthesis of deliberations in a seminar on lifelong learning. An Introduction is followed by "Keynote: The Astonishing Return of Lifelong Learning" (Paul Belanger). Part 1, Chapters 1-11, look at trends of changes that can be observed in each country. Chapter 1, "Studies on Transition Towards Lifelong Learning in Japan" is divided into six sections: "Transitions in Initial Education in Japan" (Yukiko Sawano); "Transitions in Tertiary Education in Japan" (Yukiko Sawano); "Trends of the Adult Learners in Japan" (Kaori Kato); "Trends in Adult Education in Japan" (Masafumi Tanaka); "Changes and Trends of Learning Environment in Japan" (Yoshihiro Yamamoto); and "Global Indicators Related to Lifelong Learning in Japan" (Miharu Kajita). Chapters 2-11 are "Transition of the Thai Society Towards Lifelong Learning" (Tippawan Masaeng); "Australia's Progress Towards Lifelong Learning" (Philip C. Candy, R. Gay Crebert); "Study of Transition Towards Lifelong Learning: The Case of Mexico" (Axel Didriksson); "Transition to a Model of Lifelong Education: Canadian Monograph" (Pierre Paquet); "Transition Towards Lifelong Learning in Sweden" (Kjell Rubenson); "Transition Towards Lifelong Learning in Germany" (Wolfgang Jutte); "Transition Towards Lifelong Learning in Spain" (CREA); "Study of the Transition Towards Lifelong Learning in the Czech Republic" (Stanislav Hubik); "Monograph on the Transition to Permanent Education Models in Burkina Faso" (Amade Badini); and "Global Indicators to the Transition of Lifelong Learning in South Africa" (Samuel Issacs). Part 2 is a brief summary of comparative analysis and policy issues concerning transitions towards lifelong learning raised during the discussion. Five sections are "Initial Education," "Tertiary Education," "Adult Education and Training," "Learning Environments," and "Global Lifelong Learning Orientation." Appendixes include

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indicators of transition towards lifelong learning, seminar program, participant list, and list of study visits. (YLB)

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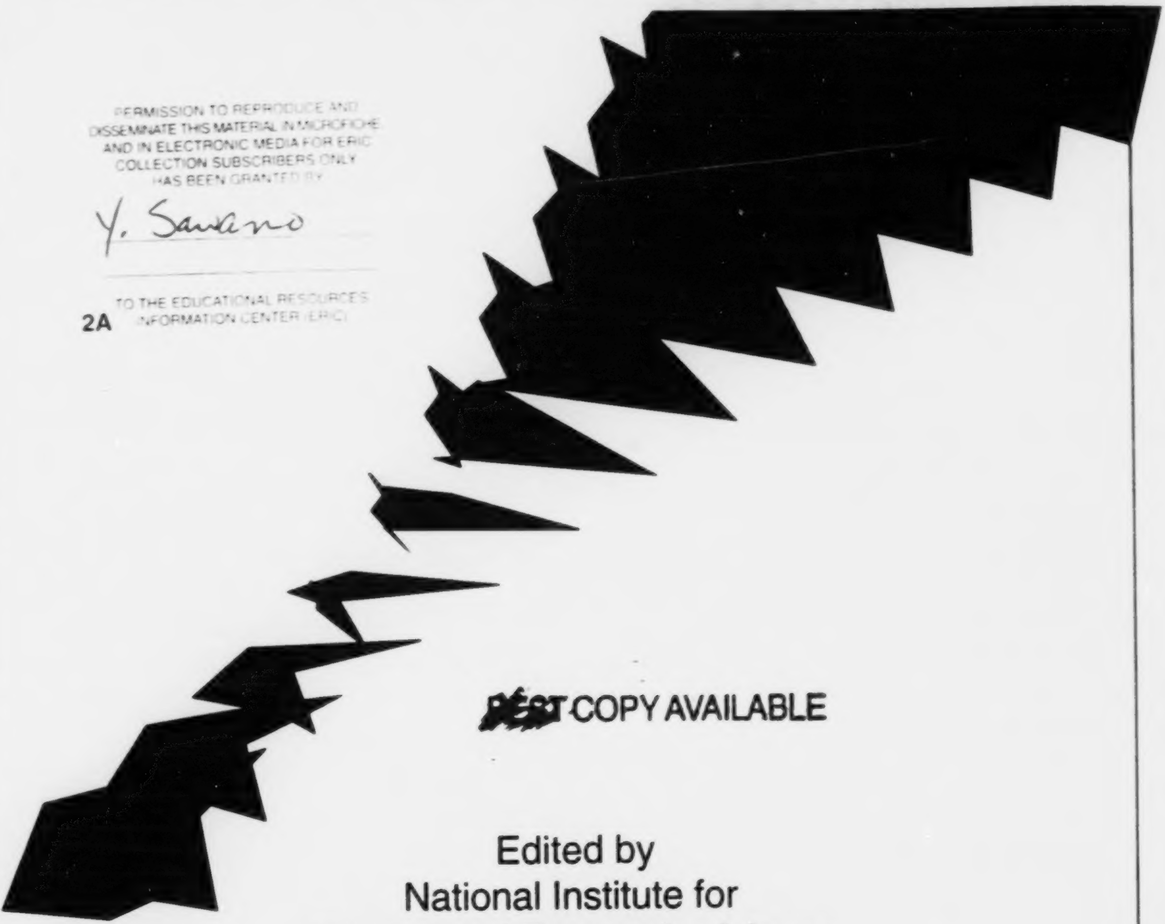

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March 1997 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

COMPARATIVE STUDIES ON LIFELONG LEARNING POLICIES

Report of a NIER/UIE joint research project

Edited by
NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH OF JAPAN(NIER)
and
UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATION(UIE)

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PREFACE

An advocacy that education be no longer regarded merely as preparatory to adult life and that school education be recognized as the initial phase of a much larger and differentiated learning process is gaining importance in the international arena. Initial education, tertiary education, adult education and training, and other learning environments are becoming more and more interwoven in new and enlarged structures of education.

While education becomes everywhere lifelong and life-wide, it becomes so in diverse ways. Different states are generating different lifelong learning patterns and policies to manage these transformations. The examination of on-going transitions towards diverse patterns of lifelong learning is of paramount interest to policy-makers, researchers and different educational actors in a wide range of sectors.

Against this background, and in collaboration with the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE), NIER decided to launch a three-year project on lifelong learning(1994-1996).

This seminar report is composed of case studies of eleven countries and the synthesis of deliberations in the seminar. The eleven countries represent all four regions of the world,i.e. Asia-Pacific, America, Europe and Africa. Case studies were categorized upon the basis of the following indicators:(1) initial education, (2) post-secondary or tertiary education, (3) adult education and training, (4) the different learning environments, and (5) global lifelong learning orientation.

It is hoped that the patterns of educational development towards emerging structures of lifelong learning identified in this report will bring to light some common key issues and trends that will be shared with other countries of the world. It is further hoped that the collaborative efforts contained in this report will begin to address the needs for and support the development of lifelong learning in our global community.

March 1997

Miharu Kajita
Director
Research Department of
Lifelong Learning, NIER

FOREWORD

This publication originated in a joint research project on comparative studies on lifelong learning policies between the National Institute for Educational Research of Japan (NIER) and the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) in Hamburg conducted by the UNESCO's budget and by the Grants-in-aid from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture from the fiscal years 1994/95 to 1996/97. The scope of the study covered four regions of the world; Asia-Pacific, America, Europe and Africa.

Within this framework, from 24th to 26th of September, 1996, an International Seminar on 'Transitions Towards Lifelong Learning was held at the NIER in Tokyo, Japan, with the financial support of the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, and the Tokyo Club. In this seminar, specialists from 11 countries, that is Australia, Thailand, Japan, Canada, Mexico, Spain, Czech, Germany, Sweden, Burkina Faso and South Africa were involved as well as UIE and NIER representatives took part.

The members of the joint research team were:

UIE	NIER
Paul Bélanger, Director	Miharu Kajita
Ursula Giere	Masafumi Tanaka
Wolfgang Jütte	Yoshihiro Yamamoto
	Yukiko Sawano
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INTRODUCTION

CONTEXT OF THE SEMINAR

Instead of being confined to an ever-increasing number of years of schooling during childhood and youth, education has to be made available throughout life. Education is no more regarded as a preparatory stage to adult life. School education has become recognized as the initial phase of a much larger and differentiated organized learning process. The demand for adult education is booming. Initial education, tertiary education, adult education and the learning environments are becoming more and more interwoven in new and enlarged general economies of education.

While education becomes everywhere lifelong and lifewide, it becomes so in diverse ways. Different states and different cultures are generating differing lifelong learning patterns and policies to monitor and manage these transformations. The examination of on-going transitions towards diverse patterns of lifelong learning is of paramount interest to policy-makers, researchers and different educational actors in a wide range of sectors.

This is why the National Institute for Educational Research (NIER) , Tokyo, and the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) had collaborated in a project to undertake a study of transition towards lifelong learning in selected developed and developing countries in different regions of the world.

The project generated case studies from eleven countries in four regions, covering both industrialized and developing countries; Burkina Faso, South Africa (AFRICA); Canada, Mexico (AMERICA); Czech Republic, Germany, Spain, Sweden (EUROPE); Australia, Thailand, Japan (ASIA-PACIFIC).

Each national case-study was undertaken on the basis of a set of indicators significant in regard to the shifting policy environments to be studied. The transition towards lifelong learning implies concurrently a change of perspectives regarding;

1) initial education,
2) postcompulsory or tertiary education,
3) the participation and provision patterns into adult education and training,
4) the different learning environments, and
5) the global lifelong learning orientation. (See Annex 1)

In order to provide an opportunity to review each national case-study, and to identify diverse patterns and trends of transition towards lifelong learning, the National Institute for Educational Research (NIER) of Japan decided to organize a synthesis seminar from 24th to 26th September 1996 in collaboration with the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) within the framework of the joint study of transition towards lifelong learning.

The main objectives of the Seminar are as follows:

1) To provide participating countries with the opportunity to present their country report on the transition towards lifelong learning;
2) To identify problems, issues and trends with regard to the current policies on lifelong learning in each country;
3) To examine the transitions towards lifelong learning by use of the five groups of indicators developed, namely, initial education, tertiary education, adult education and training, different learning environments and the global lifelong learning orientation, and to review the patterns of the transformation;
4) To make a comparative analysis of the experiences of each country, and to find out such features which are in common among participating countries and which are unique to some countries, and to recommend possible directions of lifelong learning policies; and
5) To consider the future perspective of the joint research activities in the field of lifelong learning.

The following chapters shed light on the transitions occuring in vairous sphere of education and learning, which affect the progress towards lifelong learning society in each country.

Part one of this publication looks at trend of changes which can be observed in each country, based on the case studies presented at the seminar. Part two is a brief summary of comparative analysis and policy issues concerning transitions towards lifelong learning, raised during the discussion.

KEYNOTE:
THE ASTONISHING RETURN OF LIFELONG LEARNING

by Paul Bélanger
Director
UNESCO Institute for Education

The global project of lifelong learning first emerged in the early seventies. It is indeed in the midst of a period of economic growth and optimism that lifelong learning became a central element in the visions of education proposed by UNESCO and OECD. UNESCO published the Faure Report in 1972 under the title "Learning to Be" (Faure, 1972) and the OECD issued the year after the report on Recurrent Education (OECD, 1973). But, soon afterwards, at the beginning of the eighties, the global discourses on lifelong education were to recede in a period of twenty years of silence. It is only recently, in the nineties, that the discourse on lifelong learning became visible again. This was going to be a strong come back. "Lifelong Education for All" was indeed chosen in 1994 as the major term of reference for the UNESCO Midterm Strategy covering the period 1996-2001. Two years after, in January 1996, the conference of ministers of education of the OECD issued a communique (OECD 1996) "Making lifelong learning a Reality for All" proposing to their member-countries to make a "wholehearted" commitment in that direction for the coming five years. In Europe, following a White Book on competitiveness policies (European Commission, 1993) which was precisely conceptualized around the concept of lifelong learning, the European Parliament decided in 1995 to declare 1996, the "European Year for Lifelong Learning".

I would like in this paper to raise two questions:

(1) Why, at the end of the seventies, this sudden silence on the global vision of lifelong education? What has happened?

(2) How to explain the current strong resurgence of this discourse in the mid-nineties and what is new in this come back to lifelong learning? What are the issues at stake?

In other words, I could have given to my talk the title: "The Continuity and Discontinuity of Lifelong Learning."

I. Why a sudden silence on the vision of the seventies on lifelong education?

I would like to suggest three possible reasons why the discourse on lifelong learning receded into a long period of oblivion. The first explanation has to do with the negative impact of the economic conjuncture and of the economic crisis on the optimistic vision of development. Lifelong education in the early seventies has been conceived in a context of continuous growth. It was envisioned as an accompanying measure to the expected economic development. The authors of the two reports have explained how imperative was the objective of giving peoples opportunities to develop their capacity throughout their life. They were also convinced that, considering the resources available, this aim was realistic.

Lifelong education was as a product and a mirror of the glorious three decades following the second world war. These reports did create an important breakthrough; they offered a completely new and expanded vision of education. Unfortunately, these projects were too much rooted in an expansionist view of linear progress. Of course, the concept of lifelong education of the Faure Commission, carried a polyvalent view of education, encompassing the objectives of cultural emancipation and of comprehensive development. Nevertheless the new vision remained embedded in a project of continuous economic growth and in the perspective of an unchallenged welfare state. Lifelong education was counting, both at OECD and UNESCO, on the unended capacity of the national economies to create full employment for all and to generate the wealth needed for creating more equality through the distribution of these surpluses. The authors of the two reports never doubted the premises of their project, namely that the universal provision of a prolonged and enriched initial education, ensuring all children a good take off for a lifelong educational journey. They believed that the adults will be able to pursue their education throughout their working life well protected in a generalized primary labor market offering regular jobs to all. They assumed as well that, later on in life, the adults, all benefiting from a pension plan protected by the state, will then be able to experience their golden age of education. It was a neat threefold vision of lifecycles, well synchronized and guaranteed: initial education, an alternation of work, education and free time, and, finally, prolonged retirement. Lifelong learning was based on the premisses of an unquestioned continuing deployment of the welfare state in the liberal economies or of the providing state in the socialist countries. An endless linear expansion of production was to provide the conditions for the further unfolding of the global educational plan.

The problem was not the recognition of the economic and social necessity of ensuring that no limits[1] be set to learning across the life span. In that regard, the reports are still very actual. The difficulty was the embodiment of this societal requirement in a "Weltanschauung" which was going very soon to founder. The Lifelong Education of the early seventies was a euphoria built on the postwar belief in an endless prosperity. But the petrol crisis together with the decline of the welfare state brought rapidly this euphoria to an impasse. Such counter-reform trends could have been observed in almost all occidental industrial countries. In a context of "austerity" and "rationalization", the new vision of lifelong education was unable to compete against urgent policy expenditure in initial education, health and welfare; it could not remain any more in the forefront of the political agenda.

But there is a second reason why, suddenly, this discourse on lifelong learning temporarily disappeared. It came in difficulty because it carried with it another major contradiction of the seventies, namely the refusal to acknowledge and even much more to celebrate the cultural and social differences. The global vision of lifelong education of the early seventies gave very little space to the recognition of the different identities. It is precisely during this silent period of the history of lifelong education, until the mid nineties, that the voices of the emerging new social movements became to be heard, striving for the acknowledgment of differences, struggling for the specificity of women's condition and aspirations, for the recognition of ethnic minorities and of regional cultures, for the linguistic rights of minorities. Much more important than the right to learn, it is the right not to learn that was promoted during these two decades. What was advocated was the right not to be integrated in any global standardizing project, not to be integrated in a dominant culture, not to be socialized in the same orientation proposed and legitimized under a univocal discourse. These new social movements have challenged the universal arbitrary visions, lifelong education included.

From now on, undifferentiated visions on lifelong education were bound to be discredited. Lifelong education could no longer be developed as a simple "universal curriculum", and it needs not.

A third explanation of the downfall of the early global discourse on lifelong education was its ambiguous association with a certain vision of development and modernization. The crisis of the societal project prevailing in western societies, into which the vision of lifelong education seemed embedded, contributed to its momentary discreditation.

Lifelong education came inevitably under fire of post-modernist critics who questioned the imposition on all of a unitary vision. Constructed as a uniform global discourse, the vision of the seventies on lifelong education offers indeed a good example of how a "universal reference" can be used to hide and thus legitimize the arbitraires cultures. Viewed as a neutral vision, the early discourse of lifelong learning became rapidly suspect. Policies for universal accessibility without recognition of identities were being appropriately stigmatized as policies tending to impose arbitrary cultural orientations.

An important reaction of the adult learning community to this salutary but one-sided criticism, as on many other scenes in these two decades of linear post-modernism, was "back to local. If knowledge is power, and if the dominant power is global, - so this discourse went on, - then the solution is to take refuge at the local level where the answers took often the forms of local resistance and counter power, for example in community media and in popular counter education. The grand narrative was being superseded by local narratives. So reconstructed by the post-modernist critics, the global scene should be denounced and evacuated. Without depreciating the positive resistance that they have instigated to the new forms of dominance, one of the interesting contradictions of these post-modernist reactions was precisely that this linear and non dialectical reaction and this counter-global movement tended to slip into a counter-state drive. It was then quickly used by the neo-conservative groups, during these two same decades, to delegitimize and dismantle the public services and to silence global concerns while promoting global economy[2].

However, this shift to the local and this local retreat of the educational milieus were bound very rapidly to be also questioned on many grounds. It took time however for the analysts of education to discriminate between these uses and abuses of the legitimacy of universal discourses on one hand, and, on the other, the nonetheless real legitimacy of universal affirmations. The universal declaration of human rights, for example, needs not be at odd with the recognition of a pluralist world. On the educational scene as well as on all major issues, we will discover that there is more to the global than the simplistic impositions of grand narratives. Hence, my second question: why the return of global visions of lifelong learning.

II. The return of lifelong learning

Lifelong education is re-emerging again and, very strongly, for at least three reasons. The first one is the general rise of the learning aspirations of women and men

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[1] In reference to the report of the Club of Rome (Botkin, J.W. et al., 1979).

[2] It is precisely at that period that London and Washington decided to quit UNESCO.

and of the social requirement for higher competencies. The two other reasons have to do with the general crisis of work and the globalization of our life.

During the last decades, a series of small but continuous and cumulative changes which have happened in the community, at work and in the private life, have cumulated their effects to produce a qualitative transformation of societies. The emerging late-modern or post-traditional societies (Giddens, 1990) which are emerging are very different from the societies into which the first generation discourses on lifelong education were produced. It is the significance of this silent societal change, the passage into "Risk Society" (Beck, 1992) or "Reflexive Modernization"(Beck, Giddens and Lash, 1994), that needed to be grasped in order to understand the many dimensions of the re-emergence of lifelong learning projects and of the new issues thus raised.

Some indications about this series of silent changes will suffice to explain the point we are making. Let us look first at the gender scene. The transformation of the gender relations, the slow, but continuous and profound redefinition of the woman's and man's roles in the intimacy of late-modernity, in the community and in the economy as well as a steady increase of the proportion of women at the work place have profoundly changed societies. Globally, though, of course, through many different cultural patterns, women are developing new educational aspirations, new revendication; they are introducing different life patterns and are creating ruptures in the traditional life sequences and cycles. "Sexing the self" (Probyn, 1993), they have gendered both the discourses on biographies and the lifelong learning debate.

On the cultural scene, the steady and silent increase of the proportion of the adult population having reached more than ten years of schooling, and the quiet but constant rise of the use of written communication have also changed the adult learning landscape. Adult and continuing education is no more a marginal phenomenon. In advanced industrialized and post-traditional societies today[3], about one third of the population participate every year to organized educational activities. In Mediterranean Europe, the estimated figure is around 20% and it goes more than 50% in Northern Europe. The educational scene in such countries has changed deeply: the adult learners are now exceeding in numbers the total population of students in primary and secondary schools.

The non-working life-patterns have also changed. In the time budget allocation of the adults of today, a continuous reduction of regular working time, the growing hazardous character of the working life and a ceaseless prolongation of life expectancy are creating new opportunities for post-youth education. The steady increase of the non-working time during the working life and the coming of young-old generations, which provides remarkable new spaces for creation and social production outside the control of the formal economies, are establishing a completely new social and cultural game. The differentiation and the desynchronization of life patterns, the time-spaces it generates in the biographies of adults, as well as the occupational and geographical mobility of people are introducing us into contexts very different from the one spoken of in the early seventies.

Similarly, through the slow erosion of the universal belief on techno-scientific solutions, through the quiet discreditation of the scientific dogmas and the questioning of some social uses of scientific development, suddenly, the social relations in the production and the uses of knowledge have begun to change. The present multiplicity of scientific voices and the uncertainty of techno-scientific solutions to macro and micro problems create new exigencies for the subjects. It demands new reflexive approaches from "lay peoples," because, in the absence of THE truth or of THE solution, they have nevertheless to make choices, and to make it on their own.

The dramatic experience of ecological crises is also quietly convincing peoples that linear progress is no more possible. The slow but steady increase of pollution are telling the citizens that a continuing increase of production can no more be the solution for the creation of more working-places. New approaches have to be found. The rules of the game are profoundly changing. Scientific progress is no more equated with progress. The industries are creating problems that they cannot solve. We are entering into risk societies. The present course of action can no more be maintained. Europe for example can no more continue consuming 30 times more energy per capita than people on the other side of the Mediterranean Sea. Leading to a dead end, the present course of action is to be changed.

We are now at a bifurcation. The technical solutions from above are losing their credibility and, in any case, are less and less available. We are now coming into an uncertain society, where all the actors are called upon to play a creative role. This century, which has begun with a strong belief on linear unlimited progress beautifully symbolized by the Eiffel Tower as the symbol of the Paris Exhibition, is ending with stories like Bophal and Chernobyl and the fear of further disasters.

One thing is clear. In the risk societies of today, the reconstruction of new life pattern lies now with the actors. It rests on the capacity of the society to become more reflexive at all levels. The lost of the sense of security of yesterday which tends to give place to reflexive actions in all areas of life and to impredictable constructions of each subjects biography, produce the cultural environment which, in large, explains the present emergence of learning societies. A series of micro-changes has silently cumulated worldwide into societal transformations calling for the come back of the "actors" (Touraine, 1984), therefore creating a vast social demand to enhance to capacity to act of adults both as citizens and producers, as social and economic producers.

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[3] According to a survey made in six industrialized countries and to be presented in a forthcoming publication edited by the present author and S. Valdivielso.

In these new contexts, where the capacity of the actors will tend to be enhanced continuously throughout life, where each citizen aspires more and more to control her or his own environment, in these emerging societies, we are observing a very real global trend: a growing claim for the liberation of the creative forces latent in the adult population. Of course this trend is an object of debates in the perspective, for example, of the social inequality in the take off phase of the lifelong educational biographies, that the present political economy of initial education tends to reproduce. Of course this silent explosion of the learning demand among the adult populations is embedded in different cultural patterns, reconstructed within each identity, and expressed in many different voices on the different gender kinds of orientation, though of course, but it is nevertheless a very real global resurgence.

A second trend explaining the come back of lifelong learning is the economic crises and the growing debates on the future of work. These new contexts have lead many governments and social partners to revise the recent prevalent strategies based essentially on lay off and other external flexibility measures. The long-term merit and the large-scale benefit at a societal level of investing in human resources are being reassessed to counterbalance the costly current market drive for capital swaps and fast corporate merging with their following rationalization stunts. White books have been published in many countries and regions over the last few years, pointing to adult learning as a needed complement of the new active labor market policies, requiring that continuing education be a component of any strategy intended to increase economic productivity. It is now admitted at least in these official statements. The people at work or in search of work need to have more opportunities to prepare themselves facing new conditions; the economic actors recognized that the general level of qualification needs to be raised, and that such improvement cannot wait for the next generation to happen. Moreover the production of goods and services in societies is not confined to the wage economies and new competencies are also required in these informal or social economies.

We will not elaborate more here on this already well known but nevertheless very important reason explaining the coming back of discourses on lifelong learning. One remark needs to be made however on the question of unemployment. The number of jobs is shrinking in many countries. The dogma of the possibility of full employment for all with primary labor market conditions is being slowly eroded. A quiet but strong socialization process has taken place during the last years in all countries. Every night in front of their TV screen, the adults are being "educated" in a repetitive manner by the same news broadcasts on the necessity of economic rationalization and thus of cut of jobs. Slowly the right to work loses its legitimacy. The societal value of full employment is in crisis. This trend influences the debate on work and adult learning, because too often expeditious "solution-formation" is proposed in order to cool out the social protest of employees against layout, and these quick-fix tactics risks are blurring if not killing the lifelong learning projects.

There is another dimension to this crisis. Work is not only employment. Work is not only a commodity that one can interchange with capital or with machines. Those who work are intelligent subjects with expertise, experiences and inner feelings (De Bandt, Dejours and Dubar, 1995). They bring to the work place all their qualifications and subjectivity and carry with them, in their nonworking life, all the expertise and social experiences gained in the firms. Work is also a place where men and women can or cannot express their search for creativity. Work is also an expression of one's capacity. The prevalent discourses and policies, however, tend too much to be limited to the sole "employment" dimension of work and to focus mainly on adaptative learning demands, risking to block the synergy of cumulative learning across all areas of life.

The employment crisis, the demand for new qualifications, the societal negotiation to share the shrinking volume of paid work, the diverse recomposition by individuals of their occupational, reproductive and civic roles, the gendered redefinitions of the working life course are cumulating and transforming the adult learning demand in a completely new perspective.

A third factor behind the return of lifelong learning at the fore front of the societal debates is the current globalization trend. Globalization means, of course, the globalization of information, the globalization of the markets, the competitiveness on world level forcing the industry and the national economies to become more productive, hence the importance of training and re-training policies. But globalization ceases to be seen in an unidimensional way, from only an economic viewpoint. There is also globalization of risks, of ecological risks and of cultural risks. There is also a trend, in the cultural industries, toward standardization of cultural differences, though counter-trends are emerging using new technologies for breaking up the patterns leading to hybridizations (Matelard, 1994) and possibly giving voices to many "others". There is also a globalization of concerns about a new economic or communication order, a globalization of resistance, an internalization of the search for alternatives. There is also a globalization of solidarity. The enlargement of the frame of reference and of the action-context includes but goes much beyond the economic domain. This increasing influence of the supranational sphere on national policy debate is giving a new significance to the re-borned debate on lifelong learning. Too much will be decided at this level which will condition the possibilities of learning societies. Too much is at stakes. The lifelong learning debate, in all its dimensions, will also, even at the local level, to be global.

III. Conclusion:

The Different Patterns of Lifelong Learning– –A Debate Only Beginning

These are all the forces, which, in late modern societies, are at work behind the search for new or increased capacity to act among the adult population, behind the reemergence of lifelong learning. Of course, in that new context, we can no more speak in singular of lifelong learning. What is emerging are different patterns of learning societies: different expression of requirements, different aspirations, different social relations allowing for different negotiations of the educational projects. Besides the current prevailing demand for adaptation of the work force to new technologies, one should also reckon many other claims or projects: the growing call made by women groups for empowerment through education, the requirement of ecological movements for more competent actions from their members, the learning drive of more and more health conscious adults, the simple but general and genuine desire to develop oneself, the necessity of migrant adults to master the language and culture of the new country, the revendication of minorities to protect and revitalize their culture, the desire of parents to play an active role in the initial education of their children, etc.

Lifelong learning today is many, many things. There are many lifelong learning visions and patterns. The discourse of the white paper of the European Union, though an important one, is one of them. Lifelong learning is reemerging no more as a standard policy, but is reemerging in disorder, in bits and pieces, in industry, in social movements, in the intimacy. It is emerging across institutional boundaries, often outside the adult education traditional institutions, in contradictory ways and voices.

Lifelong learning is a very diversified and conflictual field. If there is any universality in the right to learn beyond institutional or age boundaries, then there is also great discontinuity in the contexts and views of learning, and therefore a plurality of lifelong learning (Bélanger,1994). The learning environments are very different and uneven; some people are living in very stimulating milieus, while many people are working in very repetitive workplaces. The critical initial phase of the educational biography, school education, is far from being the same across social groups and societies. The growing claims for the liberation of the creative forces latent in the adult population are also unevenly voiced in the different societies.

The first issue, of course, is to reconstruct a full and comprehensive picture of lifelong learning in the different societies, without semantic exclusion and across disciplinary and institutional boundaries. Educational ministries and educational associations are part, but only partly and in various ways, of these emerging patterns.

Secondly one has to acknowledge that the growing aspirations and requirements to act with more autonomy and competence in all areas of life, work, health, environment or local governance, are completely changing the debate on lifelong learning. We have to identify the new issues related to lifelong learning in late modernity and reconstruct them within each cultural context. Closely intermingled with other societal issues, the different projects of lifelong learning are coming at the forefront of the societal debates of late modernity. Disassociated from its theoretical or utopian origin, the concept is now being imbedded in contradictory social projects among which a trend is presently prevailing (Rubenson, K.,1994) that reduced it to a narrow definition centered on equipping the workforce with the skills and competencies required by the economy.

The International Conference on Adult Education in Hamburg in July 1997 is providing a global theater for these discussions and dialogues. Because it is also at the global level that new orientations will be decided and that important priority for resource allocation will are made, such international instances of debate and objectives setting are critical. The challenge is twofold: that the voices expressing the multifaceted and diversified social demand be heard and that the decision-makers be there to learn and revisit, if needed, their priorities.

The global resurgence of lifelong learning is real but contradictory, more precisely real because contradictory. We are now arriving at a moment in the history of education, when lifelong learning, ceasing to be a theoretical educational discourse, is entering in history.

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PART ONE

TRANSITIONS TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING

The following are the revised version of the country reports submitted to the NIER-UIE International Seminar on Transitions Towards Lifelong Learning; 24-26 September 1996.

Chapter 1

STUDIES ON TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNIMG IN JAPAN

I. Transitions in Initial Education in Japan

by Yukiko Sawano

1. Participation Rate of Pre-school Education

1.1. Participation rate of pre-school education by Age

In Japan, there are kindergartens under jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (hereinafter referred to as MONBUSHO)and day nurseries (day-care center) under jurisdiction of the Ministry of Health and Welfare. Kindergartens offer one-to-three-year courses to children of three to five years of age. According to the current Course of Study for Kindergarten issued by the MONBUSHO in 1989, the standard number of class hours per day is four hours, and the minimum number of weeks devoted to education is thirty-nine per year.

Course of Study defines that kindergarten education must focus on learning environments, and that teachers should endeavor to establish a rapport with their pupils; as confidence is build up between the two parties, a better educational environment is created. The study also indicates that the infant stage is a period when the basis of children's character develops. From this standpoint, the objectives of kindergarten education are specified as follows:

1) To help children form good manners and practices for daily life and develop a positive attitude for a contented, healthy and stable life, and nurture foundations for a sound mind and body.
2) To encourage children's love and trust for people while helping them develop an attitude of independence, cooperation and morality.
3) To inspire children to take an interest in nature and the society and help them develop sensitivity toward their surroundings.
4) To arouse children's interest in the language so that they can acquire capabilities to communicate and comfortably talk and listen to others.
5) To encourage generosity and open-mindedness and nurture creativity through extensive experiences.

The objectives of pre-school education are more specifically classified into five categories depending on each aspect of child development: "health," "human relationship," "environment," "language" and "expression." The essence of these five objectives is usually taught through playing. Each kindergarten has its own curriculum in accordance with the standards described in MONBUSHO's Course of Study for Kindergarten, taking the current situation of the institution and its community into consideration. Some kindergartens have recently started to provide day-care services after regular classes until 18:00 in order to meet the needs of working parents (MONBUSHO, 1989).

Day nurseries are designed to educate infants from zero to five years of age in accordance with the Child Welfare Act. The Day-care Guidelines for Day Nurseries, issued by the Ministry of Health and Welfare in 1990, state that a day nursery is "a place where infants spend most of their day during the most important period of their lives to nurture foundations for their characters." Most day nurseries are open from 8:00 to 18:00, which greatly helps working mothers.

The basics for day-care are defined by the Guidelines as compensation for education at home in close relation with the community, which creates an environment where children can lead safe, sound and emotionally stable life. This enables children to participate in daily activities while fully displaying their personalities.

A combination of child care and education is utilized in activities at day nurseries in an effort to meet the major goal of day-care services, which is to develop children's sound mind and body. The above-mentioned day-care guidelines indicate concrete objectives and aspects of day-care services classified by age groups. It also classifies the content of education into exactly the same five categories as in the Course of Study for Kindergarten, while only one category is used for children under three. This is because it is difficult to define educational spheres at such an early stage of child development (Ministry of Health and Welfare, 1990).

Though pre-school education is not compulsory in Japan, both facilities and enrollment have increased since World War II to cater to citizen's needs. The enrollment at kindergartens reached a peak of 2,407,093 in 1980, and then decreased to 1,907,100 in 1993 because of the decline of birth rate. Day nurseries also marked its peak at 1,511,600 in 1981, and dropped to 1,217,700 in 1992 (MONBUSHO 1995a).

The following table 1 shows the trend in the percentage of three-to-five-year-old children enrolled in kindergartens and day nurseries.

Table 1. Kindergartens and Day Nurseries Enrollment Rate (%)

Year	1970	1980	1990	1992
Kindergartens				
3 years old	4.3	9.8	20.1	24.9
4 years old	37.8	50.5	56.2	56.9
5 years old	55.3	64.6	63.9	63.8
Day Nurseries				
3 years old	12.4	26.1	27.3	28.5
4 years old	20.7	29.3	31.0	32.0
5 years old	22.2	24.6	30.6	31.0

In 1992, 79.4 % of three-to-five-year-old children were enrolled in either a kindergarten or day nursery. In case of five-year-olds, as much as 94.8% was enrolled, which means that most children in Japan were enrolled at pre-school level (MONBUSHO 1994a).

Regarding demographics of kindergarten matriculation by prefecture, the enrollment rate of five-year-old children in 1994 was 86.7 % in Okinawa, 80.0% in Tokushima, 77.9 % in Kanagawa, 76.3 % in Hyogo, and 75.7 % in Saitama and Fukushima. The lowest rate was 27.5 % of Nagano followed by Kochi (28.8%), Ishikawa (31.7 %), Niigata (31.9%) and Toyama (38.3 %).

Distribution of kindergartens varies from region to region. Some 940 municipalities, or about 30% of the total number of municipalities in Japan, did not have kindergartens as of May in 1994. Generally speaking, regions with high enrollment of kindergartens have low enrollment of day nurseries, and in contrast, regions with low enrollment of kindergartens have high enrollment of day nurseries.

The average enrollment rate in 1994 was about 94 %. However, the figures in some regions were below 90 % with the rate of kindergartens and day nurseries added up. Yamagata (83.9 %), Aomori (84.7 %), Hokkaido (86.5 %), Miyazaki (87.6 %), Iwate (89.3 %) and Kagoshima (89.7%) are prefectures with the enrollment rate on the lower side, which have relatively sparse population density and depend on the primary industry.

The participation rate of prefectures containing large cities is higher than the average (Tokyo; 98.5 %, Osaka; 97.3 %. Hyogo; 96.7 %, Kanagawa; 99.5 %). However, Tokushima has the highest rate of 99.5 % followed by Kagawa of 99.1 %, both are less populated than most prefectures, so it is hard to substantiate a case of educational disparity between rural and urban areas (MONBUSHO 1995b).

One of the current problems observed in the country is the fact that financial burdens are becoming heavier for families whose children attend private pre-school institutions. Since public institutions have their own limits in admission, about 80 % of kindergarten pupils and 45 % of day nursery pupils go to private institutions, costing their parents a large amount of tuition fees. Some families cannot afford pre-school education because of such burdens.

1.2. Measures to secure access to pre-school education

In the early 1970's, MONBUSHO drew up the "Plan for Promoting Kindergarten Education," which has helped improve the situation surrounding kindergartens. Since March of 1991, three-year-old children, in addition to four and five-year-old children, have been designated as a target by the third installation of the above plan. For instance, public and private kindergartens are entitled to receive financial support when they are newly established or rebuilt.

In an effort to alleviate financial burdens of lower-income parents and correct disparities between public and private kindergartens in terms of tuition fees, the government has granted subsidies to municipalities which have implemented projects to promote enrollment of kindergartens. These subsidies are designed to help low-income families entitled to receive allowances under the Livelihood Protection Law, or those who are either totally or partly exempted from municipal taxes. In this system, up to 20,000 yen per household each year is deducted from admission and child-care fees for public kindergartens, which is applied to families with either a total or partial exemption of municipal taxes. And for private kindergartens, up to 115,000 yen per household each year is deducted, which is applied to families with a total exemption of the above taxes; those with a partial exemption are entitled to a deduction of 92,000 yen (MONBUSHO 1994b).

2. The way the Inequalities of Initial Education are being Exposed and Dealt with in Japan

2.1. Pattern of Compulsory Education

Compulsory education in Japan lasts nine years from the age six to 15, consisting of six years at elementary school and three years at lower secondary school. 99.9 % of the students studying in the same school year are of the same age. In the public school system at the elementary and lower secondary levels, which school to attend is decided according to the districts where students live. Basically all students are to be admitted except those who are diagnosed as being physically and/or mentally handicapped to a serious degree.

On the other hand, the vast majority of private and national schools attracting many applicants administer entrance examinations. Most national and some private schools are affiliated to the faculty of education at universities, providing integrated education from kindergarten or elementary school up to upper secondary school. Some private schools offer integrated secondary education of six years to prepare students to go on to famous universities.

Each school has its own curriculum on the basis of the minimum standard of the Course of Study determined by the national government. Historically, most children with physical and/or mental handicaps would receive separate education at special education schools based on the notion of "careful instruction according to the types and degrees of their handicaps, characters and stages of development, which brings out their capabilities as much as possible while developing self-reliant individuals who can actively participate in the society."

However, since Enforcement Regulations for School Education Law was amended in January 1993, children with relatively minor handicaps including those with speech defects, emotionally-disturbed, weak-sighted and those with hearing problems have received instructions relevant to the degrees of their handicaps in special classes at regular elementary and lower secondary schools. The severely handicapped study at schools for the blind, the deaf and the otherwise handicapped. ("special education schools for the blind, the deaf and the otherwise handicapped" in general term) In 1994, 131,113 students, or 1 % of children in the same age group, received special education at the stage of compulsory education (MONBUSHO 1994b).

2.2. Out-of-school Education

Currently education outside the school system is not recognized as a major educational structure in Japan. However, various educational activities for youth have been organized at the following facilities other than schools and citizen's public halls.

2.2.1 Facilities for youth education established by national, prefectural and municipality governments and some associations. The following facilities for youth are facilities for social education established as centers for training youth and organizing youth group activities.

a. Youth houses (seinen-no-iye)

Youth Houses started being built in 1959 to help young people develop sound mind and body by providing them with opportunities for social and physical training and outdoor activities. There are two types of Youth Houses: residential, with boarding facilities and non-residential with no boarding.

Residential Youth Houses, equipped with boarding facilities, are usually located in rural areas for training of groups of young people. In 1992, there were 262 residential Youth Houses, 13 of which were operated by the national government, 102 by prefectural governments, 135 by municipalities and 12 by municipal cooperative associations. Non-residential Youth Houses are designed for youths living in urban areas to study and interact with each other. In 1992 there were 162 Youth Houses, 10 of which were operated by prefectural governments and 152 by municipalities.

b. Children's nature centers (Shonen shizen-no-iye)

Children's Nature Centers have been established since 1979 as centers for children's outdoor activities and training for groups of local residents. In 1992, there were 308 Children's Nature Centers across the nation. Three of them were operated by prefectural governments, 188 by municipalities and six by municipal cooperative associations.

c. Cultural centers for children

Cultural Centers for Children are established to help spread knowledge of science and present exhibition of cultural assets for children. There were 71 Cultural Centers for Children in 1992; three of them were operated by prefectural governments, and 78 by municipalities.

d. The National Olympic Memorial Youth Center

Established in commemoration of the Tokyo Olympic Games of 1964 utilizing the facilities in the "Olympic Village," The National Olympic Memorial Youth Center is a national institution for youth education under jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. It functions as the main center of youth education activities conducted by various institutions throughout Japan. It provides training for youths, instructors and others in charge of youth education, and collaborates with other relevant facilities and organizations. It also conducts surveys and researches on youth education.

e. Other facilities for youth education under jurisdiction of the ministry of education, science, sports and culture

There are other facilities or organizations for youth education including Children's Science Hall, Youth Hall, Children's Village, Children's Hall, etc. In 1992, there were 449 such facilities altogether, 15 of which were operated by prefectural governments, 433 by municipalities, and one by a municipal cooperative associations.

In 1992, Some 20 million children and youths used these public out-of-school education facilities and organizations. This figure indicates that more than 90% of students from elementary schools to universities used one of these facilities at least once in the year (MONBUSHO, Social Education Survey, 1995). Since many of these facilities are located in remote rural areas, only a limited number of people have access to them. With the introduction of the five-day school week (once a month from September 1992, and twice a month from April 1995 on), these facilities have come to arrange special programs for the weekend activities for youth, expecting participation of not only school children but also their parents and other residents in the community.

Besides the above, there are other facilities for youths not under jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture and thus not recognized as 'educational facilities.' Children's Centers (Jidokan) under control of the Ministry of Health and Welfare is one of such examples. They are usually established at municipal levels and hire recreation attendants to organize children's leisure activities after school or on holidays. They also function as after-school day-care centers for younger elementary school students whose mothers are working. About 3,800 such facilities are located all over Japan (Miura et.al., 1992).

2.2.2. Private non-profit out-of-school educational facilities and organizations for youth

There are non-profit private youth organizations such as the Child Party, the Boy Scouts League of Japan, the Youth Red Cross of the Red Cross Japan and All Japan Social Welfare Council. There also exist youth groups of religious corporations such as the YMCA League of Japan, the YWCA League of Japan and Soka Gakkai.

2.2.3. Cram schools and lessons outside the school system

In addition to the conventional school, a large number of students attend commercial-based supplementary schools, sports classes or take other types of private lessons. According to a survey conducted in 1993, an average of 23.6 % of the elementary school students and 36.4 % of the lower secondary school students went to cram schools to supplement their schoolwork and prepare for entrance examinations.

Cram schools, or juku in Japanese, can basically be classified into five types: juku which help children prepare for entrance examinations, juku which offer supplementary classes to improve children's grades at school, comprehensive juku with functions of the above two, juku which provide a psychological asylum for stressed-out children, and juku which help children's character development (M. Yuki, 1986). About 7 % more elementary school students and 10 % more secondary school students are currently studying at juku compared to the result of the survey conducted eight years ago.

As of 1994, 76.9 % of elementary school students and 28.3 % of lower secondary school students took private lessons of calligraphy, abacus, music, dance, art, foreign language, sports, etc. The figure increased by 6.2 % and 0.9% respectively during the previous eight years. Elementary school students took sports classes most (50.4 % /swimming 29.2 %, soccer 7.4 %, Judo &Kendo 7.3 %, baseball 5.5 %) followed by calligraphy (43.4 %), music (42.0 %; piano 37.1 %, electronic organ 4.0 %, violin 0.9 %) and abacus (18.2 %). Secondary school students took music lessons most (49.2 %; piano 41.0 %, electronic organ 6.1 %, violin 0.9 %) and calligraphy (33.2 %), sport (20.1 %; Judo & Kendo 7.3 %, swimming 4.2 %, soccer 2.5 %, baseball 2.2 %) followed by abacus. It has been found that more and more children took sports classes compared to the result of the poll taken eight years before. The older the children, the more of them went to cram schools. (MONBUSHO 1994c)

2.3. Participation rate

The enrollment rate of compulsory education in Japan have been around 99% since the end of World War II (99.99 % from 1980's on), and the difference in socioeconomic status of parents is not an obstacle any longer. Public schools are popular, while 0.8% of the elementary school students and 5% of the secondary school counterparts attend private schools. According to the 1993 "Basic School Survey" of MONBUSHO, 149 elementary school students and 763 secondary school students were absent from school for more than 30 days for "economic reasons."

What has recently been deemed as a serious educational problem in this country is the increase of "psychologically-rooted refusal to attend school." In 1994, some 71,000 elementary school students and 113,000 lower secondary school students were absent from schools over a long period of time, apparently for various reasons. Among them, 15,700 students at elementary school and 61,600 at secondary school are regarded as those who refused to go to school for a "psychological hatred of attending school." The figure grew by 2,600 in total from the previous year. The percentage of such students was 0.18 % (increased by 0.01 % from the previous year) at the elementary level and 1.32 % (increased by 0.08 % from the previous year) at the lower secondary level. According to the MONBUSHO survey, 11.1 % of the elementary school students and 18.5 % of the lower secondary school students pointed out that the problem of bullying and fights with their classmates were major reasons for their hatred of attending schools (MONBUSHO 1995a).

Meanwhile, more and more students go on to upper secondary schools. Institutions they attend are regular and separate courses of upper secondary schools, regular and separate courses of schools for the blind, deaf and people with other handicaps, general courses of special technical colleges, evening courses of upper secondary schools, and the correspondence courses. Now the percentage of students going on to upper secondary school stands at 96.7 %, with the increase of 0.2 % from the result of the same type of survey taken in the previous year.

Little difference in attendance was observed between boys and girls, but the percentage of girls advancing to general courses were 2 to 3 % more than that of boys, and the percentage of boys going to evening and correspondence courses exceeded that of girls by 1 %. The ratio of general courses verses vocational courses had been 6 : 4 until the mid 1940's, but applicants to general courses began increasing after that as more and more students went on to universities. In 1994, 74 % of the students went to general courses. It has been found that about 30 % of upper secondary school students study at private schools (MONBUSHO 1995a).

However, after entering upper secondary school, some students, who seem to have been adversely affected by the guidance they received at lower secondary school, lose motivation to study and end up leaving schools halfway. According to a series of surveys regarding dropouts started by MONBUSHO in 1982, the number of dropouts has been constantly over 100,000 and the percentage of them to the entire population of students has been up from 2.1 % to 2.4 %.

Since its peak in 1991 and 1992, when the figure hit 100,000 (1.9 % to the entire population), the number of dropouts have decreased year by year. One of the underlying reasons might be the fact that certain flexibility started being introduced into regulations concerning grades promotion and school/course transfer, with the beginning of the transition to the new "Course of Study for the Upper Secondary School" in 1994 (MONBUSHO 1994b).

2.4. Policies to Guarantee the Access to Initial Education

The Article 26 of the Constitution of Japan declares free compulsory education and assures equal access to school education. The Free Textbook System has been implemented on the national budget since 1963 to realize the constitutional principle that "compulsory education shall be free." The government pays for the textbooks for all students studying at the compulsory education level. 43.4 billion yen was earmarked in 1994 to supply textbooks, and a total of 136.05 million textbooks were provided to 12.98 million students (MONBUSHO 1994b).

An educational allowance has been granted to needy pupils under the Livelihood Protection Law by the Ministry of Health and Welfare, and other special provisions have been granted by MONBUSHO to pupils to whom this law is not applied. The national and local governments have also offered subsidies to promote education in isolated areas, and encourage attendance at the special education school such as schools for the blind, the deaf and other types of handicapped people.

Low-income families, which meet the requirements of the Livelihood Protection Law and have children of ages for compulsory education, are eligible for the educational allowance, which covers costs of school supplies, transportation, school lunches, shoes, umbrellas and so forth. 75 % of the expenditures for the allowance is paid from the national coffer and 25 % comes from prefectural or municipal funds. As of July 1992, about 102,000 students benefited from this allowance. A medical allowance and school excursion fee have also been provided for them (MONBUSHO 1994).

Elementary or lower secondary school students with financial difficulties who are not entitled to the educational allowances under the above-mentioned law, costs of school supplies, transportation, school excursions, school lunches, medical care, shoes, umbrellas and satchels are provided in the form of grants. In 1992, a total of 510,000 pupils benefited from these grants (MONBUSHO 1994).

Subsidies to encourage attendance at special education schools for the blind, the deaf and otherwise handicapped are offered by both the national and local governments. The national government pays one-half of subsidies offered by local governments, which cover the expenses for students' school supplies, school lunches, transportation, school excursions, boarding, textbooks used in upper secondary school, etc., depending on the income of their parents or guardians.

The Law for Promotion of Education in Isolated Areas, enacted in 1954, offers national subsidies to promote and raise the standards of education in isolated mountain areas and small outlying islands where the elementary and lower secondary schools are generally small and not well-equipped, and tend to have difficulty in recruiting teachers. In the 1993 national budget, 15,429 million yen was allocated for subsidies of this nature(MONBUSHO 1994b). "Credit system," which has no grade-by-grade curricula or grade promotion system, was introduced in the upper secondary school for day/evening and correspondence courses in 1989 and for full-day courses in 1993.

Some upper secondary schools with their "credit system" make a special treatment available for certain students in their entrance examinations, the timing of admission and graduation, while other schools provide a variety of courses allowing students to study beyond the course boundaries and obtain a graduation certificate by just accumulating a required number of credits. In 1994, 37 public "credit system" upper secondary schools were established in 27 prefectures, and six such private schools in four prefectures. (MONBUSHO 1994b) Comprehensive courses were also introduced as the third course in 1994. Educational support and counseling for students who refuse to go to school have been implemented at education centers of local governments and "free schools" at private schools. MONBUSHO plans to place after-school counselors at each school.

3. Changes in the Content, Method and Quality of Initial Education Towards a Lifelong Learning System

3.1. Discussions developed in government documentation

The National Council of Educational Reform under the immediate control of Prime Minister Nakasone presented its report for four consecutive years from August 1984 to August 1987, mentioning the need to develop young people's abilities to learn effectively and devote themselves to studying continuously.

The first installation of the report (June 1985) emphasizes the necessity to reform educational contents and procedures starting with the following seven aspects: (1) To acknowledge the importance of individuality, (2) to enable children to fully acquire basic and fundamental knowledge, (3) to develop creativity, competency to think creatively and to express oneself, (4) to broaden opportunities to choose from, (5) to provide educational environments with a more human touch, (6) to transfer to the system of lifelong learning, (7) to cope with internationalization, and (8) to prepare children for the information age. Especially well-balanced development of virtue, knowledge and body, education of sensitivity and practical daily-life skills are stressed in (2), in the light of the notion that basic discipline for character formation has been neglected in today's family, school and community. It is suggested that the school try as hard as it can to administer education of fundamental knowledge to promote well-balanced development of virtue, knowledge and body.

The second report (April 1986) suggested to fulfill the education of virtue, and reform the content of education in lower secondary education. The suggested reform includes reorganization of subjects in the lower grades of the elementary school, expansion of choices in lower secondary school curricula, augmentation of subjects and utilization of "credit system" in the upper secondary school, flexible arrangement of the Course of Study, and so forth. The focal points of the report are as follows:

3.1.1 Fulfill education of virtue

To encourage good manners, self-control and attitudes to observe social rules in the elementary education; to help find out about oneself and seek one's own "way of living" in lower secondary education; to encourage participation in learning experiences, and group/volunteer activities, taking children's level of development into account; to place an emphasis on "moral education" (dotoku) in the curriculum of the elementary and lower secondary schools through reviewing its content, and strengthen the relations between "moral education" and moral instructions in special activities in order to develop practical moral values.

3.1.2 Reorganize the content and the composition of subjects

To comprehend subjects in the lower grades of the elementary school; to increase opportunities to take elective subjects; to broaden choices of subjects and introduce new general subjects; to utilize "credit system"; to integrate vocational education and general education; and to flexibly organize subjects in the upper secondary school.

3.1.3 Arrange the course of study flexibly

To clarify and fulfill basic knowledge in some subjects while arranging the Course of Study flexibly to allow more innovative ideas; to consider expansion of choices and permission of more exceptions (The Japan Lifelong Education Society, 1990). The above-mentioned policy was adopted when the Course of Study was amended in 1988.

3.2. "New Concept of Scholastic Aptitude" in the Course of Study

The revised Course of Study for each school level was issued in 1989 and went into effect for the elementary school in April 1992, lower secondary school in April 1993, and upper secondary school in April 1994. These Courses of Study were drawn up from a standpoint to cultivate foundations of lifelong learning for the purpose of developing people with flexibility to cope with social changes into the 21st century. The following are focal points of the revised Courses of Study:

3.2.1 Development of well-rounded personalities

To encourage developing broad-and-strong-minded young people through every facet of educational activities taking into account children's level of development as well as the characteristics of relevant subject areas.

3.2.2 Emphasis on the basics and development of individual traits of pupils

To place more emphasis on the essential knowledge and skills required of every citizen of our nation, and enhance educational programs that enable each child to give full play to his or her individuality. Consistency in the curriculum for each subject area should be ensured at different school levels, from the kindergarten to upper secondary school.

3.2.3 Enhancing abilities for spontaneous learning

To attach more importance to nurturing of children's capabilities to cope positively with social changes, as well as providing a sound base to foster children's creativity. Children's spontaneity to learn is also to be stimulated.

3.2.4 Appreciation of Japanese culture and tradition and promotion of international understanding

To put more value on developing within children an attitude to respect the Japanese culture and tradition, as well as better understanding of the culture and history of other countries. In this manner, children should be helped to develop the qualities required of a member of the international community.

Thanks to the above policies the new subject called "Living Environment" and improvement of history education have been introduced in the lower grades of the elementary school. Meanwhile, expansion of elective subjects and improvement of foreign language education and moral education have started in the upper secondary school.

In brief, the revised Course of Study reiterates the importance of developing children's characters and capabilities necessary to survive in the rapidly-changing society. It also calls for the significance of helping children to find solutions to problems on their own through analyzing the situation, thinking independently, making positive decisions and fully expressing themselves, rather than providing them with only conventional knowledge and skills.

The above are regarded as "spontaneity to learn and abilities to positively cope with social changes" specifically needed in the age of lifelong learning. In this connection, a major shift in perception of "learning abilities" is suggested, so that the focus is placed on children's willingness to learn, thinking power, sound judgment, and ability to express themselves. This suggestion aims at helping positive learning and fostering capabilities of each child, while urging the general public and people in charge of education to totally change their perception of learning (MONBUSHO 1989a, 1989b, 1989c).

The situation has also improved in terms of fulfillment of education based on the new Course of Study. Some examples include; improvement of teaching methods with the introduction of the "team teaching" in public elementary and lower secondary schools; a class with 40 students each in the upper secondary school; transfer of teachers to deal with different aspects of the upper secondary education; establishment of multipurpose spaces to be used for diverse learning activities; introduction of school facilities corresponding to new content and methods of education which encourage children's individuality; full use of computers; and improvement of school libraries.

However, it is also meaningful for children to learn about human beings, nature, society and culture in the family and community settings. It has been pointed out that today's children have less playtime and less encounters with nature and living things compared to their parents' generation. In order for children to enrich their experiences according to their interest, it is necessary to review how the children lead their daily lives, and increase the time children spend with their family and community.

Thus a five-day school week was introduced in September 1992, a major change from the conventional school week of six days including half-day classes on Saturdays. In the 1992 system, no classes were give on the second Saturday of each month. One more holiday was added in April 1995 and since then there have been no school on the second and fourth Saturdays of each month. With the introduction of the system, a series of new challenges has been presented; reviewing weekly class schedule and the number of class hours and improving overall family and community environments for children.

3.3. Basic Preparation for Citizen's social Participation Defined in the Courses of Study and Extracurricular Activities

The Course of Study consists of a set of curriculum standards issued separately for elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary school by the MONBUSHO. Covering the three areas of "subjects," "moral education" and "special activities," the Course of Study provides the basic framework for curricula, or the objectives for each subject and grade, teaching content and instruction procedures.

The current Course of Study issued in May 1989 reflects the "New concept of scholastic aptitude" mentioned before, which was suggested based on a report of National Council on Educational Reform. Consideration towards community participation can be observed in social studies classes and in the objectives of moral education and special activities.

It is clearly defined in the document that social studies in the elementary school (from the third grade to sixth grade) and lower secondary school (all the three grades) aim at "nurturing the basis of one's quality, which is needed to become a civil society member to help develop a democratic and peaceful nation in the international community." Social studies in the lower secondary school include the class of civic education in addition to geography and history. The class of civic education is designed to help students to recognize the significance of human dignity and human rights, specifically focusing on freedom and fundamental rights one can enjoy as opposed to responsibility and duty one has to undertake. It also aims at helping students to have a better understanding of democracy and foster basic knowledge necessary to become citizens in which the nation's sovereignty resides (MONBUSHO1989a).

An integrated subject, "Life Environment Studies" introduced in the first and second grades of the elementary school is designed to have students become interested in interactions with social units such as family, school, neighborhood and pay attention to public property, while encouraging them to think about their role and behavior as a member of a group or the society (MONBUSHO 1989a).

Moral education is provided for the purpose of cultivating students' sense of morality while stimulating their sense of respect for life and human being, so that they can take advantage of those sense in their daily lives at home, school and other social environments. It considers the sense of morality as the basis of their social activities in which they try to create their own culture, help develop a democratic nation of Japan. Moral education also aims at nurturing independent individuals who are willing to contribute to realizing a truly peaceful international community. For that reason, studies and events to cultivate the spirit of social services are included in the school curricula.

"Education for International Understanding," "Environmental Education" and "Welfare Education" have been offered within the framework of each school subject (MONBUSHO 1989a, 1989b). Special activities including classroom activities, student council, club activities and school events have the purpose of "cultivating positive and practical attitudes to build one's better life as a member of a group" (MONBUSHO 1989a, 1989b).

In the upper secondary school, "civic education" is an independent subject, which embraces three areas: "modern society," "ethics" and "politics and economy." The major objective of the subject is to help children understand the modern society from a broader perspective, raise awareness about how to live one's own life and cultivate qualities needed as a member of the civil society."

It is mentioned that the objective of geography and history consisting of world history, Japan's history and geography is "to improve understanding of the historical process of formation of Japan and the world, and characteristics of lifestyles and cultures of different regions, while creating self-awareness as citizens of a democratic and peaceful nation which is actively involved in the progress of the international community."

Although moral education is not specially offered in upper secondary schools, each school is supposed to teach moral values through regular school subjects. Special activities are arranged in elementary and lower secondary schools aiming at "raising awareness about how to live one's own life and cultivating abilities to develop oneself" as well as "developing one's sound mind and body with individuality and fostering one's attitude to lead a better life as a member of a group" (MONBUSHO 1989c).

4. Roles, Certification, and Training of Teachers

Pressing issues such as truancy (futoukou) and bullying (ijime), social changes such as internationalization and flood of information, and the growing need for lifelong learning, are major challenges for teachers today. They are expected to acquire a higher level of expertise and more practical teaching skills. In this connection reforms are underway in teacher training and certification systems.

4.1. Reforms in categories of certificates

In order to keep up with changes including the content of education, and attract individuals with competence and expertise to the teaching profession, a new category of teaching certificate - the Advanced Class Certificate - was introduced in 1989. The basic qualification for this certificate is attainment of a Master's degree from a graduate school of a university.

With the introduction of the new certificate, there are currently two standard categories of teaching certificate for nursery, primary and lower secondary schools, and schools for the blind, deaf, and otherwise handicapped. The first category is called First Class Certificate, whose basic qualification is graduation from a four-year university. The second category is called Second Class Certificate, for which the basic qualification is graduation from a two-year university. At the upper secondary level, too, there are two categories of teacher certification - the Advanced Class Certificate and the First Class Certificate.

Overall, graduation from a four-year university is taken as the standard level of educational attainment appropriate for teachers, and holders of Second Class Certificates are expected to pursue further studies to obtain First Class Certificates (MONBUSHO 1989d).

4.2. Reform of teacher training curriculum

For the purpose of enhancing teachers' abilities to give students practical guidance, several new required courses were added to the university level teacher education curriculum starting 1990. These include computer skills and teaching methods using information technology, student counseling and guidance for career development and higher education (MONBUSHO 1994b).

4.3. Special instructors from non-teaching areas — making use of human resources in the community

A system of teaching certification has been established for professionals from non-teaching disciplines to share their expertise and skills with students in the school setting. In particular, the Special Certificate System and the Special Arrangement for Part-time Teachers without Teaching Certificates are used, primarily at upper secondary schools, to hire experts in areas such as foreign languages, nursing, physical education (marine sports, naginata or Japanese halberd, tae kwon do, etc.), kimono dressing, and traditional performing arts.

The number of people employed as Special Instructors has grown dramatically, from 173 nationwide in 1989 to 1,782 in 1993. These professionals from outside the education sector conduct classes based on their own practical experiences, and thus help schools offer a wide variety of educational contents.

Besides contributing to an educational system that nurtures students' individuality, this system helps students have a better understanding of professions and of the society as a whole, and thus enhances career development programs at school. The Ministry of Education intends to encourage further increase in such Special Instructors.

4.4. Recognition of importance of a closer link between school and the community

Out-of-school training programs for teachers offer diverse topics ranging from business experiences to outdoor activities. The programs enable newly-appointed teachers to turn their eyes to the world outside school. In addition, visits to "social education facilities" (shakai kyoiku shisetsu) are arranged to increase new teachers' awareness about the significance of lifelong learning.

Volunteer activities such as helping out the elderly contribute to exposing students to community services, so that they can learn from them.

5. Conclusion

5.1. Broader Perspective, Equality of Education, and New Access Inequalities

There exists little regional disparity in Japan's initial education including the upper secondary education, and people's participation in it has shown a remarkable growth in the post-war period.

It is pointed out, however, that the Japanese people's inclination toward high educational credentials has also led to some practices adversely affecting children's well-rounded development. In particular, there is an increasing number of parents who push their children into cramming even before they start formal education. The parents do this in an attempt to help their children pass entrance examinations for private and national schools, which they believe will eventually help their loved ones enter prestigious universities.

Moreover, there are problems with transition to the upper secondary school. Some junior high homeroom teachers are believed to exert their power over their students' choices of schools by strongly suggesting them which ones to apply. Radical reforms are required on the part of the upper secondary school in terms of the guidance system for career development and higher education as well as the evaluation criteria for students' academic potentials in the selection process.

The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture now promotes the concept of lifelong learning, a new view of learning abilities focusing on well-balanced development of individuals rather than rote memorization of materials. Schools are encouraged to incorporate this concept into their guiding principle for students selection. The Ministry has taken steps to avoid ranking of schools; now it is prohibited to use privately-developed tests to rate schools. Nevertheless, the number of children attending private cram schools is still on the increase, and there appears to be no change in parents' and students' competitive spirits in education.

Meanwhile, problems such as truancy and bullying have become crucial concerns, since certain children's needs are not met by the current school system, and others are refused their rights to schooling. It has become customary for schools in compulsory education to allow all students to graduate, including some students who haven't met the attendance requirement because of their hatred to attend school. Some of such students are said to spend a whole day in the nurse's office at school. Others refusing to attend regular school receive psychological counseling or participate in alternative "free schools."

Such situations do not always appear in statistics. The fact that there are some students who have "officially" finished their education without full access to regular learning opportunities underlines a new type of inequalities in education.

5.2. Reconsideration of the Relations between School and the Family, and School and the Community

In recent years issues of truancy, bullying, and suicide by young victims of bullying have been taken up by mass media, and they are now generally viewed as serious social problems in Japan. In addition, corporal punishment by teachers has become an issue at some schools. It is said that there have been cases of student deaths resulting from corporal punishment which were regarded as accidents.

It is widely recognized that such problems can no longer be solved by schools alone. Efforts are being made to rectify the situation, focusing on restoration of the roles the family and community are supposed to play and realization of the five-day school week system.

In order to supplement the private cram schools and extracurricular activities which have become popular, the government will have to play an even a greater role in sponsoring facilities for extracurricular programs accessible to all children and their family members. Pertinent relationship between these educational opportunities is the main issue to be tackled for the current 15th session of the Central Council for Education of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture.

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II. Transitions in Tertiary Education in Japan

by Yukiko SAWANO

Introduction

In this section, we will be observing the changes and trends in tertiary education in Japan with a focus on the official school curriculum. For non-degree programs such as extension courses of universities, only a short introduction of its institutional aspects is given here, with a full discussion including detailed statistics to follow in section III-2 of Chapter 1.

1. The enlargement of access to universities and other tertiary education institutes

1.1. Diversity of institutes and the participation rate

1.1.1. Types of tertiary education institutes

In Japan, there are the following types of tertiary education institutes: universities (basically four year courses, six years for medicine, dentistry, and veterinary medicine, leading to a bachelor's degree), junior colleges (two or three year courses leading to a title of associate), colleges of technology (five years of which the fourth and fifth years are considered to be of tertiary education, a title of associate is granted upon completion), the University of the Air (four or more years of course work leading to a B.A. in liberal arts, registration for a particular subject for a single term or year is also permitted), and also professional training colleges. Among the above listed institutes, the University of the Air and professional training colleges are newly created types of tertiary educational institutions, which provide tertiary education in diversified areas and methods to fit the various needs of the people in today's era of lifelong education.

The University of the Air was established in 1983 to widely provide university education to the Japanese people under a new educational system effectively utilising televisions and radios. There are four types of students: 1)students taking all subjects (who attain a B.A. in liberal arts after successfully acquiring the required credits in four or more years), 2)students taking selected subjects (who register for one year in subjects relevant for a particular academic field), 3)students taking only one subject (who register in a certain subject for a year or half a year), 4)research fellow (who concentrates in the research of a particular academic field for a year).

Special training colleges were established in 1976 to provide practical vocational training and professional skill education to match the growing needs of society. Therefore, the qualifications for the faculty and the criteria for facilities are more flexible compared to those for universities and junior colleges. Special training colleges are classified into three categories according to the qualifications of enrolling students: upper secondary course, post secondary course, and general course. Those special training colleges with courses whereby a upper secondary school graduation status is required as an entrance criterion are called professional training colleges, absorbing 12% of newly upper secondary school graduates, therefore constituting a significant portion of the tertiary education climate.

As of 1994, there were 552 universities (of which 73.6% were private), 593 junior colleges (84.5% private), 62 technical colleges (3 private colleges), 1 University of the Air, 2857 special training colleges with upper secondary courses (of which 88.2% were private). All types of institutes are increasing with the exception of junior colleges. [MONBUSHO a]

Also in pace with the high speed progress of academic research, the 1976 revision of the School Education Law admitted the establishment of independent graduate schools, that is graduate schools which do not have a directly connected undergraduate department. In 1995, seven graduate schools of three national universities and two graduate schools of one private university were established. An increase in full-time graduate school faculties and construction of facilities exclusively for graduate schools is being promoted to re-inspect the existing university level and organisations of graduate schools which have traditionally been organised by the faculty structure of undergraduate departments, to effectively conduct education and research in new academic fields and interdisciplinary studies. As of 1995, there are 54 independent graduate schools in 34 national universities, 2 in 2 public universities, 9 in 9 private universities. Also, there are 49 independent courses in 16 national universities, 1 independent graduate school and 1 independent course in 1 public university, 2 independent graduate schools and 2 independent courses in 2 private universities. [Koutoukyouikukennkyuukai, 1995]

1.1.2. Advancement rate and enrolment rate in tertiary education

Let us look at the changes in the participation rate of the respective institutes by inspecting the advancement rate.

The advancement rate to universities (departments) and junior colleges (full-time course) of lower secondary school graduates of three years ago, including repeaters exceeded 40% for the first time in 1993, increasing further yet to reach an all-time high of 43.3%. Looking at it classified by gender, the rate is 40.9% for male and 45.9% for female, respectively an all-time high. Next we will look at the destinations of advancement for fresh graduates of upper secondary school. The advancement

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rate for male to universities is 25.9% yet that for female is only 18.0%, while advancement rate to junior colleges depicts an opposite situation where the female rate records 25.9% compared to a mere 1.7% for male, either way a great disparity can be observed among the genders. The advancement rate to postsecondary courses of special training colleges is noticeably increasing for both genders in recent years.

The enrolment rate of foreign students shows an increasing trend in all institutes, due to the increasing number of foreign students. The change was most explicit in graduate schools where it reached 13%, while in the undergraduate and junior colleges it was as low as 1.4% and 0.6% respectively (1994). [MONBUSHO a]

In Japan, there is also a wide discussion concerning the large disparity among regions in participation rate in tertiary education. The disparity is as large as twice as much between the highest and the lowest areas. As of 1994, the highest was Nara prefecture with 53.1%, Hyogo, Kyoto, Tokyo, Hiroshima alongside 26 other prefectures had over 40%, 19 prefectures had a higher rate than the national average of 43.4%, on the other hand Aomori, Okinawa, and Iwate prefectures fell below 30%. The disparity in advancement rate for fresh upper secondary school graduates to upper secondary courses of special training colleges is also large, the highest is Nagano prefecture with 21.7%, the lowest, Yamaguchi prefecture with 12.1% (national average 16.6%). [MONBUSHO, 1994c]

Statistics on students enrolled in tertiary education institutes classified by age is not compiled in Japan, however, there are data for university (departments) and junior college (full-time) enrolment classified by the year of upper secondary school graduation (dating back five years for universities, three years for junior colleges). It shows that 64% of university enrolled students had done so right after upper secondary school graduation, 26% enrolled a year after graduation, 6% enrolled two years after, and 1% enrolled after three and four years after graduation respectively. For junior colleges, 93% were fresh upper secondary school graduates, 4% enrolled a year after, and 2% enrolled two years after graduation. Since there are no grade skipping systems and grade failing is rare in Japan, more than 99% of the students in the same grade are of the same age up until upper secondary school. 96% enter university departments between the ages of 18 through 20, and the majority graduate before they are 25. In junior colleges, 99% enter between the ages of 18 through 20 and the majority graduate before the age of 23 or less. [MONBUSHO, 1995b]

1.2. Acceptance of different types of students

As we have observed in the previous subsection, although the number of tertiary educational institutes and also of enrolling students depicts an upward trend, the share of adult citizens is minimal in both university colleges and junior colleges, as can be seen from the fact that almost all of the enrolling students have graduated upper secondary school within the preceding two years. The academic knowledge-biased entrance selection system is said to be the major cause of this. Therefore, a special selection system for adult citizens needs to be established.

1.2.1. University colleges and junior colleges etc.

To accommodate working students and other adult citizens, some universities and junior colleges have traditionally had evening courses and correspondence courses.

In the school year 1994, 74 universities around the nation had evening courses with 124,968 students enrolled. Similarly, 84 junior college had evening courses with 20,007 students enrolled. The number of students have increased over the years, but their share among other students has decreased (For universities the share was 12.9% in 1965, but decreased to 5.5% in 1994. For junior colleges it decreased from 19.4% in 1965 to 3.9% in 1994.) [MONBUSHO, 1995a] However, it should be noted here that evening courses differ from regular daytime courses only in terms of the time of day which the classes are held. For all other graduation criteria including the number of required credits and the required enrolment period it is the same as those for the regular daytime courses. Therefore, students enrolled in evening courses are considered full-time students in Japan. Also according to a survey conducted by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture only 30.7% of those enrolled in evening courses have jobs, the remaining are non-working students, no different from those in regular daytime courses which has raised questions about the programme. [Daigaku to Shougaigakusyu Kenkyukai, 1992]

The correspondence course is a system which provides access to official university curriculum by means of correspondence. As of 1994, there were 25 departments in 14 universities (including the University of the Air), for junior colleges there were 15 departments in 10 junior colleges which had correspondence courses. The number of students enrolled in the official curriculum is 167,267 in universities (6.8% of the entire student body), and 43,019 in junior colleges (8.2% of same). The trend of student enrolment has been upward ever since 1973 for universities and 1985 for junior colleges. [MONBUSHO, 1995a]

The share of part time students in the entire student body (including students in the fourth and fifth grades and the postgraduate course of the colleges of technology) is approximately 14%, when we treat students in evening courses and correspondence course students as part time students for international comparison. Further yet, if we regard students in the postsecondary course of special training colleges as part time students, as their class hours are flexible, the part time student share will rise to approximately 33%. [MONBUSHO, 1994]

As referred to in the previous subsection, there are no statistics in Japan pertaining to age distribution of the students. However, the age distribution of correspondence course students is available from the School Basic Survey conducted annualy by the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. According to the survey, the age distribution of students enrolled in the official curriculum of the correspondence courses is as follows: age group 18-22 composed 25% in universities, although the same age group had a much higher share of close to 70% in junior colleges, age group 25-29 and 30-39 composed over 45%. This illustrates that adult students over 25 years old consist of over 60% of the whole body. Limiting our observations to the University of the Air, the largest group is the age group 30-39 (23.0%), followed closely by 40-49 (22.3%), also the age group 50-59 has a 10% share therefore more than 70% are adult students. (Figures for 1990) [Daigaku to Shougaigakushu Kenkyuukai, 1992]

The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture distinguishes between 'ronin' (repeaters who have concentrated on entrance examination preparation after graduation from upper secondary school) and 'adult citizens', who have held jobs socially or domestically for a certain period of time. There are special entrance selections for adult citizens to expand their access to recurrent education in universities and junior colleges. The number of adult citizens enrolled under the special selection was 598 in 1980 (0.2% of the entire enrolling body), and increased to 3696 in 1993 (0.7% of the entire enrolling body). As we can see from those figures, the share is still very low, less than one per cent, of which more than 90% were enrolments into evening courses. [MONBUSHO1980, MONBUSHO1993] A further discussion of adult citizen entrance will be provided in the section of entrance selection.

The rate of female students is increasing in all institutes, excluding special training colleges. Their share has exceeded 90% in junior colleges in the 1990s, and has exceeded 30% in universities. However, there is a great imbalance in their majors. In universities 33% of the female students majored in the humanities (8% for male), 25% in the social sciences (47% for male), followed by education (11% for male), and only 2-4% majored in the natural sciences, engineering, agricultural science, and medicine. In junior colleges, where more than 90% of the students is female, the imbalance is also apparent where 29% majored in the humanities, 25% in home economics, 15% in education. This is in contrast with majors of male where 40% studied engineering. [MONBUSHO, 1995a]

1.2.2. Graduate Schools

In order to meet the demands of the people in attaining an advanced professional education, graduate schools have begun to open their doors towards adult citizens.

Traditionally, Japanese graduate schools have only offered daytime classes, but with the revision of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities, the establishment of night courses were admitted for the master level in 1991, the doctoral level in 1993. As of 1995, there are 19 departments in 15 graduate schools of 11 universities with evening master courses, while there is 1 department in 1 graduate school of 1 university with a evening doctoral course. Also, there are 540 departments in 189 graduate schools of 113 universities with day and night courses. There has been a sharp increase since 1991, and for graduate schools with day and night courses for the whole duration of two academic years, there are 101 departments of 78 graduate schools in 54 universities. A special selection for adult citizens have been conducted in 294 graduate schools of 142 universities (29% of total graduate schools). There is an increasing number of adult citizens who enter graduate schools by this system. In the school year 1994, the number was 3,298 for the master course (3% of total) and 1,343 for the doctoral course (3% of total). [Koutoukyouiku Kenkyuukai, 1995]

An increase in the female rate can also be seen in graduate schools. The share was only an approximate 8% in the 1960s, but has exceeded 20% to reach 20.3% in 1994. Here again, we observe that female students are concentrated in the fields of humanities, social sciences, and education. [MONBUSHO, 1995s]

1.3. Measures to facilitate access for different types of students

1.3.1. University Entrance Qualification Test

University Entrance Qualification Test was established to offer the opportunity to widely attain a tertiary education according to a person's ability, even for those who do not fulfil the admission requirements. Upon taking this test and passing in a certain set of subjects the applicant is granted a college entrance requirement, and may apply to entrance examinations conducted by the universities. This system was established in 1951 to widen the accessibility to tertiary education for those who could not complete a upper secondary school education due to domestic financial problems or the student's health problems. Recently, it is being utilised more by upper secondary school dropouts caused by adjustment problems to school life and changes of future plans.

In school year 1994, 17,680 students (63% male, 37% female) took the University Entrance Qualification Test and 5,181 successfully passed (passing rate 29.3%).

When we look at the trends of University Entrance Qualification Test applicants in the post-was period, we can see that in the first half of the 1950s there were over 6,000 applicants, but the number decreased rapidly from the latter part of the 50s and had decreased to 2,000-3,000 applicants by 1970. The passing rate was around 10% until the latter half of the 1960s, but increased after that to a peak of 45% in 1975. After that the passing rate has decreased due to the increase in number of applicants and has stabilised around 30% after 1983.

The average age of passing in 1994 was 20.5, the highest age was 68. More than half, 52% of the successful candidates were upper secondary school dropouts, 38% were junior upper secondary school graduates, 8% were students of part time and correspondence upper secondary school courses, while 2% were dropouts of colleges of technology.

1.3.2. Improvements in entrance selection

a. National Center for University Entrance Examination (NCUEE) examination

In the pursuit of individualising and diversifying university entrance examinations, the NCUEE examination was launched in 1990, thus the entrance selection is composed of a common set of high quality questions in the form of the NCUEE examination, aimed at measuring basic upper secondary school academic achievements and also of the secondary examination conducted by the individual universities. All 98 national universities and 48 public universities utilise the NCUEE examination as their primary selection, and an increasing number of private universities are making use of it as well. The number of participating private universities has been increasing yearly, in 1995, 104 out of 552 universities utilised the NCUEE examination.

b. Diversification of evaluation methods

Improvements are being made in individual universities in diversifying and increasing selection methods to evaluate the applicant's ability and aptitude from many-sided perspectives according to the goals and characteristics of each of the universities, departments, and studying areas. Recently an increasing number of universities conduct not only academic tests but also interviews, essay examinations, and performance examinations.

c. Recommendation enrolment

A system called 'recommendation enrolment' is conducted by many universities where the applicant is waived from taking an academic test, and is evaluated by upper secondary school academic grades, special talent such as in sports or art, and special activities. However, universities are guided by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture to not conduct recommendation selections at a very early period, and to keep the number of successful candidates under this system below 30% of total new enrolment for universities and 50% for junior colleges.

d. Examination by a special method

Other than the above mentioned selection methods, an increasing number of universities are conducting special selections for overseas returnees and adult citizens. The special selection for adult citizens differs from the general entrance selection in that an emphasis is placed on evaluation of experiences and academic eagerness through interviews and essays. Universities employing this selection measure is increasing yearly especially among public universities, under the guidance of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. In the school year 1993, it was conducted by 308 departments in 183 universities, where 3669 adult citizens successfully passed. Also, it is conducted in 226 graduate schools in 113 universities. [MONBUSHO 1993]

Additionally from the school year 1996, a special selection for graduates of vocational upper secondary schools will be established. In vocational courses the hours of English, language arts, and mathematics classes are about one half of regular upper secondary schools, and therefore the students have faced a disadvantage in ordinary entrance examinations. Until now, special arrangements for graduates of vocational upper secondary schools were limited to recommendation enrolment, so the introduction of a special selection method in their professional field of study was requested by universities. The number of capacity as well as the detailed methods of the special selection for vocational upper secondary school graduates is left up to each university to decide. [Asahi Shimbun, May 27, 1995] Also since the first graduates of the comprehensive course will appear at the end of the 1996 school year, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has already decided that the university entrance examination criteria will be revised to enable universities to conduct a special selection for comprehensive course graduates from school year 1997. Entrance examinations for departments of commerce, engineering, agriculture, fishery, home economics, and nursing are expected to introduce special selections for graduates of comprehensive courses whereby subjects pertaining to the professions will be included. [Nikkei shimbun, Dec. 12, 1995] Since there are students who reluctantly enrol into specialised upper secondary schools due to the severe competition upon entrance to general upper secondary schools, such measures which will pave the way to universities for students with the ability and aptitude are expected to activate these specialised courses.

e. Transfer from junior colleges and colleges of technology to four-year universities

Special capacities for transferring students from junior colleges and colleges of technology to the third year of universities is increasing, in response to the increasing demand of graduates of such institutes to enrol in four-year universities for further academic education.

f. Provision of course information for upper secondary school students

In 1994, the NCUEE introduced the "heart system" an on-line database pertaining to university education and research. Also, a brochure entitled, "Universities have begun to change" was written and distributed to upper secondary schools, firms, and local government units.

Brochures, videos, and telephone services introducing departments, and dates of university orientation meetings are prepared by most universities.

g. Feasibility of special entrance measures for students with exceptional abilities

As of now, it is clearly stipulated that a student must be at least 18 years old at the time of entrance. Currently a system which will deregulate this requirement in order to enable exceptionally gifted students to enter universities at an earlier phase is being studied by the Central Council for Education.

2. Changes in contents and methods of teaching and learning

2.1. Reform of the curriculum

2.1.1. Flexibility of curriculum standards

As we have seen in the previous section, in response to the rise in the participation rate to higher education and the facilitation of a diversified group of students, universities are expected to clarify their principals and goals to conduct individual and unique educational and research activities. Also for the same purpose, various types of higher education institutes such as education intensive universities, research intensive universities, universities answering to the demand for educational opportunities by adult citizens, are expected to expand.

Towards the achievement of this goal, in June of 1991 the university curriculum standard was deregulated, and therefore the subject classification (general subjects, foreign language, physical education, specialised subjects) and its credit requirements were abolished. In response to this move, 375 universities, equivalent to 68.3% of the total 549 universities conducted a curriculum reform by the school year 1994, and many unique approaches including the introduction of comprehensive subjects was initiated. Furthermore, reforms are taking place in such areas as the establishment of educational curriculum based on principals and goals of the individual universities, systemisation and professionalisation of the specialised subjects, foreign language education reform aiming at the achievement of practical foreign languages for communication, and the introduction of information processing education. Simultaneously, attention is given to the relations to curriculum of upper secondary schools and graduate schools.

Relating to the above mentioned reforms, there are movements among some national universities to reorganise the liberal arts department, which have traditionally conducted liberal arts education which was previously categorized as "general education", to strengthen the linkage between liberal arts education and specialised education.

2.1.2. Enrichment and reforms in science education

In recent years, science education in higher education institutes, such as in universities and graduate schools have gone through reforms and enrichment processes, as young people have been said to be steering away from science and technology, which can be observed in the decreasing rate of upper secondary school students applying to science related departments, and adversely in the increasing number of science and engineering university graduates who have become employed in non-manufacturing industries. Reforms are being made in universities, such as in organising the curriculum to strengthen the linkage between general education and specialised education and also in introducing interdisciplinary and comprehensive subjects to foster comprehensive judging abilities and perspectives. Further the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture is guiding the establishment and reorganisation of national universities in order to facilitate an educational system matching the advancement of science and technology and also the trend of interdisciplinarisation. [MONBUSHO, 1994b]

2.1.3. Reforms in education of medicine, dentistry, and pharmacology

There is a growing demand for changes in the education of medicine and dentistry, due to the rapid changes in its surrounding environment caused by the advancement and diversification of contemporary medicine and medical treatment, as well as the increase of senior age citizens. Therefore, curriculum reforms are being conducted such as in the implementation of a six-year organic and consistent education linking general education and specialised education, an introduction of an experience oriented education at an early period following college entrance to induce awareness as future doctors, and the enrichment of clinical educational programs. A similar reform is being planned for pharmacological education as well. [MONBUSHO, 1994b]

2.2. Improvements in educational procedures

To accompany curriculum reforms being implemented since 1991, reforms to improve educational procedures are also being conducted.

2.2.1. Formation of detailed syllabi

It has not been common in Japanese universities for instructors to handout detailed lecture schedules at the beginning of the term, but an increasing number of universities are preparing and publicising syllabi detailing purpose of the lecture, course contents by each lecture, grade evaluation system, book list, requirements etc..

2.2.2 Development of new textbooks

There have been examples where new textbooks have been developed to facilitate classes appealing to student demands. Textbooks developed by Tokyo University attracted wide social attention, even becoming best-sellers at non-university book stores.

2.2.3. Introduction of class evaluation

An increasing number of universities are introducing class evaluation by students in order to facilitate class improvements.

2.2.4. Improvements in class style

More and more universities are diversifying class styles by changing the working shift of instructors and increasing small class lectures, instead of the usual big class lectures, and increasing the number of discussion, debate, and seminar style classes. Also some universities are employing experience activities such as volunteer activities as part of the class requirements. Also an increasing number of universities are establishing centres on campus to develop and instruct such educational methods. Furthermore, classes actively utilising computer networks are being conducted mostly in private universities.

2.2.5. Diversification of educational opportunities

Although there has been a credit exchange programmes among universities and junior colleges, the 1991 revision of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities has allowed universities to offer a program to exchange credits with non-university institutes, such as professional training colleges, for a certain amount of credits upon the evaluation by the university itself that the conducted course work is suitable for university education. This programme is introduced to junior colleges as well as colleges of technology. [MONBUSHO, 1994a]

2.3. Flexibility and diversification of tertiary education

Changes are being made in class hours and diversifying educational programmes to realise an expanded educational opportunity for students with a variety of backgrounds including working people to provide them the newest and highest set of knowledge and skills.

2.3.1. Subject specific education programme

In 1984, the Standards for University Correspondence Course Education was revised, paving way for granting credits to students which until then were regarded as special students. Based on this, the University of the Air established courses for students taking selected subjects and students taking only one subject. The former is for students who have no intentions of obtaining a university degree but studies a particular academic area for a year, and the latter is for students studying one subject for one term (six months). Students in both courses are awarded credits after successful completion.

The 1991 revision of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities allowed not only correspondence universities, but other universities to employ this system. Therefore, universities are now permitted to offer a "subject registration system", for non-degree students to earn credits for a particular subject and a "course registration system", for non-degree students to earn credits in a group of subjects in a particular course. In school year 1994, 441 universities (74% of all universities) have introduced this system. Also it has been introduced in junior colleges, colleges of technology, and graduate schools. [Koutoukyouiku Kenkyuukai, 1995]

2.3.2. Daytime and evening course system

In 1991, in response to the report submitted by the University Council the Standards for the Establishment of Universities were revised to allow the "Daytime and evening course system" in public and private universities, which in the past had been limited to a selected few national universities. Hiruyorukaikousei was established for adult citizens who have difficulty in studying during weekday daytime. It enables those students to concentrate their studying in the evening and on Saturdays while taking a few classes in the daytime. The student capacity is divided between those in the daytime course and those in the mainly evening course. It is expected by this classification that both groups interrelate and through the process stimulate each other. As of 1995, the hiruyorukaikousei is offered at 41 departments in 32 universities, with a total student capacity of 3351. It is also offered at 540 majors in 189 graduate schools of 113 universities, showing an increase since 1991, but only 101 majors in 78 graduate schools of 54 universities offer the hiruyorukaikouse for the whole duration of two years. [Koutoukyouiku Kenkyuukai, 1995]

2.3.3. Evening graduate schools

In the past graduate schools have held their classes during the day but after the revision of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities in 1991 they have been permitted to offer an evening course for master students, and in 1993 the rule was expanded to include doctoral students as well. As of 1995, 19 majors in 15 graduate schools of 11 universities offer an evening course for masters, and 1 major in 1 graduate school of 1 university offers the same for doctoral students. [MONBUSHO, 1994b/ Koutoukyouiku Kenkyuukai, 1995/Daigaku to Shougai Kenkyukai, 1992]

2.3.4. Diversification in the granting of degrees

In 1991 the National Institution for Academic Degree (NIAD) was newly established as an institute to evaluate the granting of degrees to those who are acknowledged as having the same academic level as university and graduate school graduates. This has enabled graduates of colleges of technology who have completed the requirements of a junior college or a Advanced course of a college of technology approved by the NIAD to earn a bachelor's degree, and also for graduates of Higher school (Daigakkou) approved by the NIAD, which are administered by ministries other than the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, to earn either a bachelor's, master's, or a doctor's degree.

In cases where a graduate of a junior college or a college of technology has acquired credits under the previously mentioned "subject registration system" or the "course registration system" and the accumulated credits are sufficient for the bachelor's degree requirements, upon passing the screening and examination by the NIAD a bachelor's degree will be awarded.

Also, since 1991 graduates of colleges of technology and junior colleges are awarded a title of "Associate".

2.3.5. Countermeasures in faculty and university organisations in response to the changes in patterns of higher education

a. Awareness changes in the faculty caused by university evaluation

An awareness change among the faculty should accompany the progress made in the reforms of higher education.

In response to the report by the University Council which stressed the necessity for self evaluation and efforts aimed at reform to heighten the quality of education and to activate educational and research activities, the Ministry of Education, Science, Culture stipulated an effort obligation by individual universities to introduce self-monitoring and self-evaluation in the 1991 revision of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities. Since then many universities have organised campus rules concerning self-monitoring and self-evaluation, and has started making and releasing a list of educational and research achievements and reports. As of June 1994, 434 universities, which is equivalent to 78.5% of all universities have organised a system for self-monitoring and self-evaluation and 34.4% of all universities have publicly announced the results. (The percentage is 98% for national universities with 94% publicising, and 72.3% for private universities with 25.1% publicising.)

The most surveyed areas are in research activity (95.1%), educational curriculum (77.5%), student enrolment (77.5%), principals and goals (66.7%), linkages with society (63.7%), educational methods (46.1%), and management (45.1%). Among the universities there have been some enthusiasitic cases where questionnaires were distributed to students and graduates or an evaluation was conducted by an outside source, such as by well acclaimed Japanese or non-Japanese researchers to seek a more rational evaluation. [MONBUSHO, 1994b/Koutoukyouiku Kenkyukai, 1995]

b. Improvement in faculty recruitment for utilising diversified human resources

From the past, Japanese universities have faced criticisms concerning their closed structured management style, their narrow perspective in recruiting faculty members, and their inactive research activities. Since October 1991 the University Council has been investigating upon request a wide selection of problems concerning organisational management in universities as follows: "Activating of faculty personnel affairs", "faculty organisational system such as the status of assistant researcher", "university evaluation", "linkages and co-operation between universities and the community", "smooth operation of university management".

According to the report by the University Council submitted to the General Assembly in March 1993, many steps are taken to heighten faculty movement, procuring high quality human resources, raising the quality of faculty members, such as utilising public recruitment, employing adult citizens, and conducting a strict evaluation of the achievements. However, there is still a large disparity among universities in the implementation, and in some universities and departments, the percentage of its own graduates is still high, personnel interaction with other institutes being low and overall education and research environment stagnant.

Looking at statistics concerning this matter, in universities (department), 34.8% of the faculty members are Alma Maters (national: 40.3%, public:37.9%, private:30.6%). The percentage break down by majors shows that it is low in the humanities and the social sciences (18.3% respectively), but considerably higher in the science departments (health, medicine: 57.1%, agricultural science: 45.7%, engineering: 38.6%). The number of female faculty members in school year 1994 has increased by approximately 3000 (1.3%) to reach 13,789 (10.3%), compared to five years ago but the share is still quite low. On the other hand, faculty members who have been recruited from non-university institutes totalled 1,837 in 1991 (744 from government institutes, 1,052 from private enterprises, 41 from self owned businesses), showing a gradual increase from the total number of 1,432 in 1985. The number of foreign faculty members was 371 in national universities (0.7% of total faculty), 189 in public universities (2.3%), 1,951 in private universities (2.8%), and is gradually increasing. [Koutoukyouiku Kenkyukai, 1995]

Regarding recruitment of faculty members, public recruitment was conducted in 87% of all national universities, 66% of public universities, and 39% of private universities, with an average of 50% in all institutes. The number has increased from 1,673 in 1989 to 2072 in 1991. [Koutoukyouiku Kenkyukai, 1995]

In this context, the University Council reported on "Improvement of Teaching Staff Employment Procedure" in June, 1994 and proposed further improvements in the selection method and standards, as well as the recruitment of faculty members with diversified credentials and experiences and non-Alma Maters, and promotion of the recruitment of adult citizens, females, and foreigners as faculty members.

3. Transfer of content between initial and further education of university professionals

3.1. Connection between upper secondary school and university

The linkage between primary education and specialised education in the university level cannot explicitly be observed in the curriculum, but as previously mentioned in subsection 3 of section 1, there is a trend at the entrance examination level to attach importance to the speciality in primary education as can be seen in the existence of the special selections for graduates of vocational high schools and comprehensive courses.

Also, some private universities have affiliated secondary education institutes (junior high schools, high schools, sometimes even primary schools and kindergartens), where the university or junior college faculty members would hold classes. As long as a student satisfies the grade requirements in the affiliated high schools, they are admitted into the adjoining universities without having to take entrance examinations.

In the 14th Central Education Council held between 1990 and 1994, it was decided that special measures were necessary for students with exceptionally outstanding abilities in areas like mathematics or physics. Based on the American advanced placement model, a system to widen the opportunities for high school students to attain a university level education, and certifying it as credits after admission into universities was investigated. In response to this, summer sessions are being held by mostly science and engineering departments to offer an early encounter for youngsters to the specialised education in the university level to help them in selecting their goals. Also, concerning mathematics it was proposed that the university entrance age requirement be lowered on a trial basis. A system to admit early age entrance to universities as in the case of grade skipping in high school or other levels was not adopted but the Minister of Education, Science and Culture is seeking it to be put on the agenda for the 15th Central Education Council again. [Nippon Keizai Shimbun, April 21, 1995]

3.2. Assisting upper secondary school students in selecting their future goals

Attempts are being made to offer assistance to high school students by making pamphlets to introduce the appeals of science and the contents of education and research in universities.

[MONBUSHO, 1994b]

4. Coopearation between the community, industry and tertiary education

4.1. Cooperation with the local community

Higher educational institutes are requested to agressively contribute to the regional community. Towards that goal, each institute must not only heighten their social standing through an increased amount of educational and research achievements, but also act as an integrated part of the regional community by conducting extension courses, opening facilities such as libraries and gymnasiums to the public, co-operating in research with regional government units and industries, co-operating with industries in the "refresher education" of their employees to list a few examples. [MONBUSHO, 1993] The continuing passage will explain the institutional aspects to promote this policy. (Details of the contents and the characteristics of the recipients will be discussed in Chapter 3)

4.1.1. University extension courses

Extension courses offer an advanced educational opportunity to the regional citizens and the general public by directly supplying educational and research achievements of the universities and junior colleges to the public. Extension courses are governed by Article 69 of the School Education Law and Article 71 of the Enforcement Regulations for School Education Law. According to these articles, it is stipulated that each university is entitled to offer extension courses and also that necessary items concerning this matter will be determined by the Minister of Education, Science and Culture. However as of now the Minister has yet to set any rules or provisions, therefore universities are conducting extension courses in various styles and contents, upon taking into consideration the requests of the regional community and the education organisational situations. There are three types of extension course management styles; 1) those managed by the university extention center (referred to later), 2) those conducted by a campus executing committee with faculty as members, and 3) those conducted by a university federation organised by the local government unit.

As of 1994, 85% of all universities held an extension course, with 4590 courses attended by 544,101 people. Compared to the 1980 figures, the number of courses has increased by four times, the number of attending people has increased by five times. There has also been a 2-3 times increase in number of conducting institutes, courses, and attendance in junior colleges over the last decade.

Liberal Arts and contemporary issues constitute approximately 30 percent of the extension courses, followed by professional careers, foreign languages, hobbies, and sports. More than 80% are for the general public but there are occasional courses aimed at those in specific occupations, female, children, and parent-and-children. [Council of Lifelong Learning, 1996]

4.1.2. University education extention center, Lifelong learning center

The establishment of the University education extention center, which conducts research and investigation of the planning and management of extension courses and of opening up the university is being promulgated to organise the executing system of extension courses. Also, the 14th Central Education Council has proposed the establishment of "Lifelong learning centres" to promote lifelong education projects in universities and junior colleges. As of 1994, in national schools, 9 universities and 1 junior college has either a diagakukyouiku kaihou centre or a lifelong education centre. [Council of Lifelong Learning, 1996]

Some private universities are undertaking major extension course projects usually called "University open courses (Daigaku kokai koza)" or "Extension centres".

4.1.3. Opening the university library to the public

University libraries usually carry a very large amount and variety of specialised books compared to ordinary libraries, often including academically valuable materials. Therefore citizens can benefit greatly from getting access to the collection of books. According to a survey conducted in 1992, 96.1% of all universities open their library to the outside (99.0% of national universities, 92.3% of public universities, 95.7% of private universities) but sometimes only to students of other universities and researchers, therefore in reality only 79.5% of all universities actually provide access to people with no affiliation with educational institutes such as ordinary community citizens. [Daigaku to Shougaigakushu Kenkyukai, 1992]

4.2. Coopearation with industries

4.2.1. Research cooperation between universities and private enterprises

Joint research has traditionally been seen in private universities, but in 1983 the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has started the "Joint-research system with private section" which allows national universities to accept researchers as well as research funds to conduct joint research. Since then the number of joint research projects has rapidly grown, and in the fiscal year 1994, 1392 projects were conducted at 90 universities. Other examples of linkage and co-operation between universities and industries are "Comissioned research system", where private enterprises and ministries other than the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture entrust a research project to universities, "comissioned researchers", where universities accept researchers and engineers from institutes such as private enterprises, and "Grants and endowments system", where industries provide research funds and tuition etc. to facilitate academic research. [MONBUSHO, 1994b]

4.2.2. Refresher education

The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture is sponsoring national and regional discussions and idea exchanging sessions between universities and industries to promote "refresher education", which is a educational programme for working people to refresh or newly acquire knowledge and skills. Also publicity materials regarding the situations of this programme are being made and provided, as well as survey research on the educational contents are being conducted. The industrial sector, for their part, has established the "Trust for Fostering Advanced Engineers", and by the fiscal year 1994 grants have been awarded to 11 universities and 3 colleges of technologies conducting the refresher education programme. [MONBUSHO, 1994b]

4.2.3. Rectifying the emphasis on academic background at recruitment

Although recently the difference in lifelong wages and promotion by educational background has been reducing, the trend in attaching importance to academic background and the name value of prestigious universities is still strong. Behind this scene, there are even some firms which conduct their recruitment strongly in favour of a few selected schools. To rectify this situation universities are making attempts in diversification and individualisation to match their goals and ideals, as well as introducing organisational changes to facilitate the expansion of special selection methods for adult citizens and inter-university, inter-department transfers. Also some firms are revising their recruitment methods such as not asking the names of educational institutes from the applicants to avoid the concentration of employees from just a few institutes.

5. Popularisation of higher education and its finance

5.1. Situation surrounding expenses of tertiary education

According to a survey conducted by OECD, the share of higher education expenses to GDP was 0.8% in 1991 for Japan, the highest was Canada's one third. Japan ranked among the lowest in surveyed countries along with the United Kingdom (0.8%) and Spain (0.9%). [OECD, 1995]

Expenses for education in universities, junior colleges, colleges of technology (including expenses for affiliated hospitals and research centres) totalled 5,974,957 million yen in school year 1991. Of this, 2,780,237 million yen (46.5%) were covered by the central and local government as educational expenditures of the public financial account, and the schools' own financing totalled 3194720 million yen (53.5%). 47.3% of this was utilised for personnel expenses and 20.8% was for capital costs. 2,373,074 million yen went to national and public higher educational institutes, and close to the entire amount

(2,373,046 million yen) was financed by national or local funding (Schools' own funding which are reported as being 28 million yen may not be a precise figure as they include such funding as donations). Public funding is divided between the central government (84.6%) and the local government (15.4%), of which 9.7% (229312 million yen) are from payments made by students such as tuition, entrance and examination fees. On the other hand, 3,132,129 million yen went to private higher education institutes, of which public subsidies accounted for 9.7% (8.7% by central government, 0.9% by local government) and 90.3% were financed by the universities' own funding. 55.1% of the private universities' funding come from payments made by the students.

Educational expenditures in both institutes have been increasing in the past five years; for national and public universities national funding has decreased 2.5 points in five years with local government funding increasing to fill the gap. Furthermore, for private universities as well, national funding has decreased by 2.3 points (local government funding has increased by 0.1 points but has remained constant), the universities* own funding has increased by 2.1 points to fill the gap. [MONBUSHO, 1994a/MONBUSHO, 1992]

The per student higher education expenses in school year 1991 was 3,599,254 yen in national and public universities, 1,687,081 yen in private universities (of which 148,679 yen were from public financing). Compared to figures for five years ago, there was a increase of 358,211 yen in national and public universities and 306,054 yen in private universities (however, a decline of 10,161 yen in public financing). [MONBUSHO, 1994a / MONBUSHO,1992]

5.2. Student payments

For national universities in school year 1994, student payment was a national uniform rate of entrance fee: 260,000 yen and annual tuition: 411,600 yen; 299,600 yen up from a decade ago. The national average for public universities was entrance fee: 357,787 yen and annual tuition: 410,757 yen; a total of 768,544 yen, 356,722 yen up from a decade ago. The national average for private universities was entrance fee: 280,892 yen, annual tuition: 708,847 yen, and facility maintenance fee: 183,725 yen; a total of 1,173,464 yen, 202,420 yen up from a decade ago. The increase in national universities is most prominent, shrinking the difference with private universities.
[MONBUSHO, 1994a / MONBUSHO,1988]

5.3. Scholarships

The Japan Scholarship Foundation provide loans to outstanding students facing difficulty in continuing schooling due to financial reasons. For scholarship loans with interest, the interest rate is set low with a long repayment period. The gap between this and the borrowing rate is supplied by the central government to lessen the burden on the students.

In the school year 1993, 7.3% (201,751) of all university students acquired non-interest scholarship loans (348,000 yen -420,000 yen per annum), while 3.2% (86,685) acquired interest loans (420,000 yen-1,608,000 yen). In the master course of graduate schools 25.1% (19110) received non-interest loans (936,000 yen per annum) and 1.1% (800) received interest loans (936,000 yen per annum). In the doctoral course of graduate schools, 59.0% (15550) received non-interest loans. [MONBUSHO, 1994a]

In the school year 1994, the capacity of scholarship loans was expanded by 1,500 in doctoral courses, 2,000 in master courses, 3,900 in universities and junior colleges. [MONBUSHO, 1994b]

There are no age limits to receive the loans but one person cannot receive a loan in the same academic level more than once.

Aside from this 4,307 public-service corporations, local government units, and educational corporations etc. offer scholarship programmes, of which 288,505 students are gaining benefiting from. [MONBUSHO, 1994b]

5.4. Discussions on tertiary education finance

The ageing and under capacity of national university facilities has been discussed in Diet as well as having received considerable press coverage. In response to this, among other measures to increase facility equipment related expenses and the amount of research funds and scholarships, the following actions are being taken:

(1) Increased funding of unit cost per student and per professor, which represents expenditures on core educational and research activities.

(2) New budgetary provision for university reform promotion expenses to provide active support for curriculum reform and other aspects of university reform.

(3) Increased provision for advancement promotion special expenditures, which are used to fund the improvement of educational and research conditions in graduate schools that have been successsful in these areas and to fund the teaching assistant system.

(4) Increased funding for the improvement of basic equipment and large-scale, high-performance research equipment and for prioirtized equipment expenditure on research infrastructure.

(5) New provision for expenditures on high-tech equipment for undergraduate education in order to supprt the prioiritized installation of experimental and practical educational equipment at the undergraduate level in fields characterized by rapid technological innovation.

(6) Increased expenditure on advanced equipment for graduate schools in order to provide additional funding for departments of graduate schools that are producing excellent educational and research results.

6. Conclusion: Changes and problems in tertiary education

6.1. Expansion and Diversification of tertiary education

As we have observed in part I of this chapter, higher education in Japan has undergone a tremendous expansion in scale, and a wide diversification in the quality of students due to popularisation of universities, necessitating changes in the educational contents and methods as well as the quality of the instructors. On the other hand, since the 1970s, rapid progress in science and technology and also of academic research caused by industrial structure changes has created a demand for human resources to support internationalisation and information technology expansion. Also the decrease in 18 year old population will force the university to attract people of various ages and with various backgrounds, such as adult citizens, and therefore make changes in the educational contents and methods as well as in class styles to respond to their educational needs. To do so universities must strengthen their three functions of 1) creating researchers and professionals, 2) creating citizens with a wide range of education and professionalism, 3) re-education to refresh knowledge and skills, and in doing so may need to further intensify diversification. At the same time, not only higher education personnel but also the Japanese people in general must change their views on higher education, which until now has placed its goals on earning graduate credentials of prestigious universities necessary for job recruitment, with the quality of education being neglected.

6.2. Diversification of student evaluation

As observed above, the standard and quality of knowledge and skills upon entrance and the expected standard and quality of knowledge and skills to be acquired by graduation must change accompanying the diversification of higher education institutes.

As we have already seen in section 3 of part I of this chapter, we may already observe quality changes in the evaluation of new enrolment. Traditionally, most of the entrance selection was done by written examinations checking the quality and quantity of academic knowledge accumulated until high school. According to the level of necessary knowledge private preparatory schools ranked the universities. Currently, an increasing number of universities are selecting students based on such criteria as whether the student has any volunteering experiences, eagerness towards studying, and aptitude. If the diversification of upper secondary schools progress, more changes in these directions must follow. At the same time, an evaluation method to seek at an early stage students with the potentials of becoming high quality researchers and professionals must be developed now more than ever.

In the case of Japan, the number of credits required for graduation are stipulated according to each institute but there is no nationally standardised academic requirement. Credits are granted by the sole decision of the instructor. This made it difficult to evaluate the quality of the student by academic record, which induced attaching importance to the name value of the institute rather than the grades. This is the so-called "Gakurekishugi (Diploma orientism)" issue. Attempts are already being made in some government units and private firms in altering recruitment methods to weigh the actual contents of education and wide range of experiences including volunteering, to lessen the concentration of hiring from a few selected prestigious universities, to rectify the problems pertaining to "Gakurekishugi " and to follow the ideals of lifelong learning.

However, since the recession after the burst of the bubble economy in the 1990s, the imbalance of labour opportunities by gender has been prominent, and in 1995 the labour situation of females has become the worst in the post war period. Discriminating conscious against female on the employer's side and also the fact that females tend to major in academics areas uncompetitive in job recruitment are cited as reasons for causing this shocking situation. Therefore in the entrance selection for the school year 1996 there were an increased number of practical minded females hoping to get into areas which were directly connected with professional qualifications such as agricultural science, medicine, pharmacology, despite the fact that these areas were male-predominant until now. Highly educated females leaving Japan to work in places such as Hong Kong and Singapore where their abilities are more fairly judged is a newly appearing trend. This shows that rise in female participation rate in higher education calls for demands of a fair evaluation method of academic achievements by society.This kind of demads is expected to further progress as the participation rate of adult citizens increase.

6.3. Coping with personal needs

In short, the changes in tertiary education in Japan could be expressed as "from the mass to all individuals". Currently, the idea of "benefitter pays" is strong in higher education and so public subsidising is kept low, but as higher education institutes diversify a more individualistic approach will become necessary, as in educational support in forms of scholarships and other to such students as those facing difficulty in continuing studying or adult citizens having left their jobs. These individual response are sought in educational curriculum, class styles etc. as well.

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III-1. Trends of the Adult Learners in Japan

by Kaori Kato

1. The Current situation of Adult Learners

1.1. Lifelong Learners' Needs and Participation Requirements

1.1.1. Trends of Lifelong Learning Participants

a. Transition of Lifelong Learners' Participation Rate and Areas of Learning

According to a series of national public opinion polls conducted by the Prime Minister's Office, the rate of adults' participation in lifelong learning has shown a steady increase over the past decade; 31.4% in 1979, 40.1% in 1988, and 47.6% in 1992 (Prime Minister's Office, 1979, 1988 and 1992).

This trend has been especially noticeable in the age group between 50 and 69, male and female alike. In the 1992 poll, "health and sports" (health management, medicine, nutrition, jogging, swimming, etc.) as an area of learning marked the highest participation rate of 23.7%. Both female and male respondents of different age groups showed much interest in this area. It was followed by "hobbies" (music, art, flower arrangement, dancing, calligraphy, etc.) at 23.2%, "vocational knowledge and skills" (acquiring knowledge concerning respondents' occupation and obtaining certificates or licenses) at 9.9%, and "skills in domestic affairs" (cooking, dressmaking including traditional kimono sewing, knitting, etc.) at 8.5%.

Courses of "liberal arts" (literature, history, etc.) were taken up by 6.3% of the people surveyed, "social concerns" (social, current, international and environmental issues) by 4.9% of them, and "child-rearing and education" (pre-school education, educational issues, etc.) by 4.6% of them. 3.3% of the respondents said they participated in "volunteer activities" (Braille translation, sign language, care for family members, etc.) and 2.6% in "foreign languages" (English, French, etc.).

Back in 1988 a survey of the same purpose indicated that 20.4% of the adult learners surveyed preferred hobby-related courses, whereas only 14.7% preferred "health management" courses. However, it was found by the 1992 survey that "health management" had become the most preferred area of adult learning, which registered 10% higher than the turnout of the same question in 1988. The other areas showed a growth of only 1% to 3%.

b. Major Characteristics in Japanese Learning Methods

Learning methods observed in Japan are basically divided into three categories. The first category is "self study," in which learners study by themselves through media such as correspondence courses, books, and television. The second is "learning through lecture courses." Learners in this category attend extension courses offered at Citizen's public halls and universities, so-called "culture centers," and other institutions. The third category is "learning in study circles", by which learners join circles and groups for specific areas of study.

A national survey on "Adult Learning Needs" conducted by the National Institute for Educational Research in 1991 showed that 33.1% of the people surveyed took part in "lecture courses," 27.2% in "self study" and 21.5% in "study circles." Since a multiple choice system was used to ask this question, some of the respondents cited more than one learning methods (Tanaka, 1995a).

In "lecture courses", learners can choose from various programs including the following : classes organized by public educational institutions such as citizen's public halls, extension courses administered by universities, colleges and other types of schools and programs offered by private organizations such as culture centers. Citizen's public halls and culture centers are facilities that are used most frequently for this purpose.

Culture centers are private educational facilities which have rapidly grown in number across the nation since 1975. According to a national survey compiled by NHK (Broadcasting Culture Research Institute of NHK, 1993), the culture centers ranked second following "books and magazines" in the list of learning methods which learners wished to utilize. Attending culture centers has been established as an efficient vehicle of learning for the general public, especially female learners, in the areas of hobbies, sports and liberal arts.

Another method widely practiced by women is okeikogoto, which means private lessons and small classes. A lecture-type learning regimen peculiar to Japan, okeikogoto lessons are observed mostly in private teaching of traditional arts, which includes tea ceremony, flower arrangement, calligraphy, handicrafts, and English conversation. Some unmarried young women regard these lessons as prerequisites for marriage, while other women, married and unmarried alike, pursue them as an extension of their hobbies.

In contrast with private lessons and small classes, the "self study" method of learning through the media is predominantly utilized by male learners. Educational media such as books, magazines, newspapers, television, and radio have recently become increasingly popular and used extensively (Broadcasting Culture Research Institute of NHK, 1993).

1.1.2. Learners' Needs for Learning Assistance and Support

What kind of learning assistance do learners need? With regard to the obstructive factors for learners, the main issue seems to revolve around the three factors: "time", "facilities," and "information."

According to an NIER survey on "Adult Learning Needs" (National Institute for Educational Research of Japan ; NIER, 1991), the biggest obstructive factor for learning, cited by 44.4% of the respondents, was "difficulty in finding free time." "No learning facilities nearby" was mentioned by 22.6% of the people surveyed, and 21.1% of them replied "difficulty in getting information" was an obstacle for their learning. Asked about their requests for the administration to facilitate their learning, 38.7% of the respondents demanded that the number of accessible facilities be increased, and 31.4% of them answered more information on lifelong learning would be needed.

The result of the survey indicates that learners need not only opportunities but also assistance in a systematically-organized manner, i.e., establishment of facilities, make facilities open to the public, and make more information available through administrative assistance. The range of adult learners' needs suggested in the survey is so wide and so varied that there seems to be no way to fully satisfy their individual needs. Most learners, instead of depending on organizational learning opportunities as "free learners," prefers to select opportunities that are most suitable for their own life cycles, learning styles and interests.

Though opportunities are available in the forms of television and radio programs, extension courses, and culture courses offered by the private sector, what adults learners particularly need are learning environments with more rigor, in which they can build up their knowledge, skills and interests to accomplish their goals.

1.2. The Changing Boundary between Vocational and General Education

1.2.1 The Rise of Learning Needs for General Education in Corporate Vocational Training

A survey conducted in 1992 on "Corporate Employees' Educational Practices and Training" (NIER, 1992) reveals that many companies offered in-house training as one of the requirements for their employees. Training on basic management skills were offered to 75.4% of the people surveyed, the company philosophy to 51.1% of them, and intermediate/advanced management skills to 48.1% of them. Interestingly, the types of education or training which the employees thought they needed most and were most attracted by were "education on internationalization" (71.9%), "training on office automation" (71.2%) and "education on lifelong planning" (70.3%).

Attendance was found to be better in courses spontaneously taken by the employees. In courses on "improvement of skills related to the current position" as mandatory in-house training, the actual participation rate of the respondents was 50.8%, while those who wished to take these courses in the future (the participation expectancy rate) was only 40.2%.

As for courses concerning "acquiring broader perspective," the participation expectancy rate was 58.3% whereas the actual participation rate was 20.6%. Courses dealing with "development of global perspective" showed a participation expectancy rate of 47.4% and an actual participation rate of 17.9%. For both courses, the participation expectancy rate was higher than the actual participation rate.

It was found that many companies encourage their employees to enroll in courses directly connected with their current work or positions. The employees surveyed, on the other hand, felt that they needed broader knowledge and skills on the international level well beyond the framework of corporate in-house vocational training.

Those employees also took a great interest in courses regarding future life planning. This fact illustrates that it is important for us to pay attention to the high demands in studies of the intermediate area somewhere between the traditional vocational training and general education.

1.2.2.Diversification for the Purpose of Attending Foreign language Schools

- the Difference in Perception of Languages between Vocational Training and General Education

With regard to purposes of attending a foreign language school, a recent survey on "Foreign Language Learning Needs" (National Foreign Language Education Promotion Association, 1995) shows that 48.7% of the respondents answered there purpose' was for learning a language as a hobby or for cultivating themselves. "For overseas travel" registered the second-highest percentage at 38.5%. 35.9% of the people surveyed were attending a language school because they like languages, and 26.0% of them said conversing with foreigners was their main purpose. "Utilizing language skills in one's current profession" was cited by 24.3% of the respondents, "understanding foreign cultures" by 22.6%, and "Getting a position that enables one to take advantage of foreign language skills" by 21.3%.

On the whole, the percentage of learners who studied foreign languages as part of their general education such as hobby or cultivating oneself was higher than those whose purpose was profession-related. This trend was common among learners of the age group between 20 and 69.

Among the male respondents who were employed at the time of the poll, 46.6% of them answered that they were learning foreign languages because they would like to utilize language skills for their jobs. This answer was given by the largest segment of the group surveyed.

Foreign language education demonstrates two characteristics in the area of adult learning; one is an application in vocational education, the other in general education. This tendency is similarly observed in the areas of computer education, and general education with a focus on current affairs, and the same holds true with the courses of "Acquiring broader perspective" and "Internationalization education" which employees showed a keen interest. Here, the boundary between vocational education and general education is less distinct.

1.3. Disadvantaged People (People with little access to Adult Education)

1.3.1. Busy Working Professionals

Working professionals are not actively involved in learning opportunities due to the lack of leisure time and long working hours, despite the fact that their demands for learning are high (Tanaka, 1995). Interestingly enough, their actual participation rate in "vocation-related" learning is found to be higher than the actual demands. Hobbies-and-sports-related learning, however, displays higher rate of demands than the actual participation rate. This suggests that because of their daily working regimen that keeps them busy, the workers cannot but suppress their desire for learning in areas of their personal interests.

1.3.2. Barriers for Women Faced with Child Care Responsibilities

There are cases where family environments can create disadvantages for people with desire to learn. For instance, responsibility of child-rearing can prevent women from pursuing their educational goals.

A comparison between women who devote themselves to the care of their children and those who do not indicates that demands for learning is almost the same with both groups, 50.7% for the former and 51.5% for the latter. Meanwhile, the participation rate of the former is 52.7%, which is evidently lower than that of the latter at 62.8% (Tanaka, 1992).

Unfortunately, in public institutions no services exist to support and assist women faced with full child care responsibilities. However, nurseries are available in some private educational facilities such as culture centers, and its number is on the rise (Private Culture Business Association, 1995).

1.3.3. Handicapped People and Foreign Residents

The situation of learning support for the handicapped has gradually improved with the increasing number of volunteer staff and development of facilities for this segment of the population. Yet it is certain that more efforts should be made by the authorities.

On the other hand, learning support for foreign residents has been quite a challenge, as workers from abroad have rapidly increased in this country over a short period of time. The number of these people, both permanent residents and temporary workers mainly from Southeast Asia, Middle East, and South America, has already reached 1.3 million. This makes up over 1% of the total Japanese population(General Affairs Agency, 1995). What most of such residents need specifically are Japanese language skills, cross-cultural training, and vocational skills training. Those who lack such skills or knowledge are likely to have difficulty in their daily lives, which clearly brings out the importance of education for them in relevant areas.

Other types of the disadvantaged population include residents of segregated districts, students with a psychological hatred of attending school, dropout students, minorities such as the Ainu, and the less affluent. Literacy classes are held for these people in public associations and affiliated organizations, namely, public-operated night classes and classes offered by community-based organizations (Tokyo Gakugei University, 1995).

The number of public-operated night classes at lower secondary schools reached a peak of 87 in 1954, then gradually decreased to 20 by 1970, but increased again to 34 by 1994 (the total number of students was 3,027). In 1991, 33 private night classes were organized in Tokyo by citizen's organizations, volunteer groups and religious organizations (including the number of voluntary lower secondary night schools), and by 1994, the number rose to 99.

Despite the improving situation, those organizers suffer from problems such as difficulty of finding classrooms, budget shortages, insufficient support, and a dramatic decrease in enrollment. Partly because of the general assumption that the citizens born and raised in Japan have received compulsory education which teaches them how to read and write, the illiteracy problem of native Japanese speakers tends to go unnoticed. Few associations offer literacy programs to that segment of the population, to which more attention should be paid.

1.3.4. Regional Differences in Learning Opportunities

Regional differences in adult education services have inevitably been created, since upper secondary schools such as universities are concentrated in large cities and their suburban areas. Commercial-based educational facilities such as culture centers are also typically located in densely-populated areas to attract more customers, which adds to the problem of regional differences. The government has not taken any measures to tackle this situation, and that may pose a more serious issue in the future.

2. Relations between Stages of Life and Adult Education

2.1. Stages of Life

As the life span of the Japanese has greatly extended and multiple lifestyles have been presented, people's value systems have become increasingly diversified and their life cycle has undergone a transformation (Ministry of Health and Welfare, 1994).

This transformation occurs with an individual's different stages of life, or specific events such as employment, marriage, retirement, etc. These events generally serve as turning points in an individual's social life, and are influenced by at what age he/she experiences the events, what kind of perception he/she has about them, and changes to his/her situations.

Such turning points can be classified into three categories :

(1) Turning points related to profession (employment and retirement)

(2) Turning points related to family (marriage and child birth)

(3) Turning points related to personal concerns (childrearing, care for older members of family, diseases, etc.)

2.1.1 Professional Turning Points

a. Employment

In the modern Japanese business world, it is customary for companies to recruit new graduates once a year. People's employment experience starts after they have completed their last level of schooling beyond the lower secondary school. Looking at the percentage distribution of new graduates' employment situation by levels of education completed (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1994 a), 2% of the lower secondary school graduates, or those who completed the compulsory education, found a job upon graduation.

At the time of the survey, the percentage of students who went on to the upper secondary school was 95%. 30% of the upper secondary school graduates, 70% of junior college graduates, and 70% of university graduates found employment upon graduation. The percentage of students who went on to the junior college was 12%, and university was 30%.

The following is how the employment rate of graduates of each school level has been trending during the past decade: at the lower secondary school level, the ratio of the graduates who found employment upon graduation was 3.7% in 1985, dropping to 1.7% in 1994. At the upper secondary school level, the figure was 41.1% in 1985, dramatically decreasing to 27.7% in 1994. Junior college and technical college graduates who found a position upon graduation decreased from 89.0% in 1985 to 76.1% in 1994.

The decline of employment rate among the graduates of lower and upper secondary school has been inversely proportional to the increase of students going on to the next level of educational institutions. As the percentage of students attending higher level of education has risen, the average age of students finding their first job has become higher.

b. Retirement

The vast majority of Japanese business organizations have their mandatory retirement ages for their employees. As much as 91.8% of companies adopts this type of retirement system (Ministry of Labor, 1995), and 96.8% of them mandates an uniform retirement age. The percentage of companies with the retirement age of 60 years or older is 85.8% (94.4% if the figure includes companies which currently use the same retirement age but are scheduled to change it). 99.4% of the employees at corporations with more than 5,000 employees retire at 60 years or older (100.0% if the figure includes companies which currently use the same retirement age but are scheduled to change it). 60 years old has been widely accepted as the mandatory retirement age since the enactment of the "Law pertaining to the Employment Stabilization of the Elderly" in 1986.

69.5% of the companies adopting this system has developed either an employment extension arrangement and/or a second employment arrangement, while 30% of them has the fixed age limit for their employees. The fixed age limit of 65 is the highest, and 70% of the firms adopt this age limit as part of their retirement systems.

Some companies take a different approach to retirement. They provide a sort of gradual preparation arrangements for their employees facing retirement. The ratio of companies offering options for future courses of the middle-and-older-aged employees is 5.1% of the entire company demographics. The figure is 47.2% for large firms with more than 5,000 employees (Ministry of Labor, 1994).

The above arrangements include early retirement incentives, which are adopted by 3.3% of the companies (42.5% of the companies with over 5,000 employees). Transferring personnel to affiliated companies is practiced by 0.2% (7.5% of the companies with over 5,000 employees), assistance for changing a job is provided by 0.2% (6.9% of the companies with over 5,000 employees), and conversion of positions by which employees can take advantage of their expertise is administered by 0.7% (3.1% of the companies with over 5,000 employees).

The age applicable to the early retirement incentives is 50 or older in 33.6% of the firms, and 55 or older in 28.0% of them, and 45 or older in 15.6% of them. This indicates that the larger the size of the company, the younger the fixed retirement age. Companies in the process of extending their retirement age are also trying to modify their systems of future course options in order to promote early retirement among employees.

Mandatory retirement tends to be viewed as a main turning point in employees' lives, since it can mean not only physical and environmental transformation such as loss of the workplace and change of a job, but also huge mental stress, especially for those who have been work-oriented while dedicating their entire working lives to the same organization based on the lifetime employment system (Foundation of Senior Life Enrichment, 1993). It is reported that some people suffer from loss of purpose of life caused by dissatisfaction and difficulties they face in pre- and post-retirement.

2.1.2. Marriage and Child Birth

Japanese men in general start working upon graduation from the last level of school and continue working until retirement without being interrupted by marriage or birth of children. For women, however, not only employment but also marriage and child birth can be crucial factors bringing about turning points which greatly influence their lives. Eight patterns are observed as to different stages of women's lives (Economic Planning Agency, 1977).

1. not married, continue working
2. married, with no children, continue working
3. married, with children, continue working
4. married, with children, stop working at child birth
5. married, with children, stop working at marriage
6. married, with children, stop working at child birth but resume working when children have reached a certain age
7. married, with children, stop working at marriage but resume working when children reach a certain age
8. married, with children, no occupation (house wives)

At each of their stages of life, most women must make decisions about their future: at one stage, they are confronted with the task of deciding on their employment, marriage and children. At another stage, they have to determine whether they should continue working after they get married or have children, or they should stop working at one point and resume to work once their children have reached a certain age.

In 1993, the Japanese women married at age of 26.1 on the average. With more and more women stay unmarried longer than before, the employment rate of women aged between 25 and 29 has shown an increase. Some of those women continue working after marriage with the support of their spouses and parents.

On the other hand, however, many large companies still try to persuade female workers, sometimes implicitly, to leave their positions once they are married. In the age bracket of 20 to 24 years, the percentage of women who left their positions due to marriage or children was 40%. The figure was 60% for women between 25 and 29, and 45% for those between 30 and 34 (General Affairs Agency, 1992).

An increasing number of women whose children have reached the school age are rejoining the work force as part-timers. This is because part-time jobs are easier to find and in most cases, they don't affect their domestic duties too much.

2.1.3. Other Turning points

a. "Completion" of Full-time Child-care

During the course of a woman's life, above-stated issues on marriages and child care are significant factors for her decision to continue or discontinue working. The "completion" of full-time child-care also influences a women's decision to reenter the job market as part of the work force, mostly as part-timers. This reentry usually occurs when children enter elementary school and lower secondary school.

The employment ratio of the female population has recently increased, especially among women in their forties, most of whose children attend elementary or lower secondary school. It was found in 1991 that 70% of women in their forties were working. The figure was the highest in all the age groups, followed by women between 20 and 24 years old (Management and Coordination Agency, 1991). The number of working women is also growing in the age group between 45 and 49. This growth can be partly attributed to the increasing number of women who reenter the work force after their children have reached the school age.

b. Long-term Care for the Elderly

The era of so-called "ultra aging society" has already started in Japan. For people who take care of the aged, the period of caring can be a turning point in their daily lives as well as in their occupations. Most of the people who take care of the elderly are women, and this can pose a threat to those who wish to pursue their professional career.

In 1993, the number of the bedridden elderly reached 900,000 across the nation. The figure is one million if the number of those who require special care such as people with dementia is added to the total. 60% of "care providers" for the elderly are found to be their family members (Ministry of Health and Welfare, 1994). 80% of them are women and over 50% are aged between 50 to 69. About 30% are spouses and over 30% are spouses of their children (Ministry of Health and Welfare, 1992).

About half of the such elderly have been in bed for three or more years, which can be a serious physical, mental and economic burdens on their family members.

Most of those who look after the elderly have to stay home all the time to keep an eye on them. Such individuals are often times forced to discontinue working outside their homes due to their commitment to the bedridden members of their families. The number of such people reached 81,000 in 1992, and 90.1% of them were female (Ministry of Health and Welfare, 1992). The problem is that when care providers are eventually free from their obligations, it is difficult for them to return to their former position or new position at the same professional level.

c. Diseases

Many people have a tendency to neglect the importance of health when they are healthy. Diseases, for that matter, can serve as another turning point in their stages of life. When people become seriously ill, the patients' conditions can affect their daily lives, and in some cases can totally change their future. In case they do not recover quickly, treatment may continue for a long period of time, altering their lifestyle to a great extent. In order to avoid that, people need to take precautions against diseases. But once such an unwelcome situation occurs, it will require the patients to cope not only with their medical treatment but also make efforts to adjust themselves to potential changes to their lives. At the same time, the family members are required to acquire knowledge of nursing.

In addition to knowledge about their conditions and thorough medical care, the patients need support from their family and friends above all.

As our society is aging rapidly, people have come to pay more attention to illnesses and prevention of them. Examples of their interest include long-term hospitalization, particularly the bedridden elderly, prevention of adult diseases, declining physical strength because of lack of exercise, and mental fatigue due to stresses. As a result, knowledge of health management as an area of learning has attracted a great attention.

In a public opinion poll conducted by Management and Coordination Agency in 1992, 23.7% of the people surveyed were actually engaged in health-related studies, and 53.7% of them answered they wanted to learn about health management in the future, while 58.2% of them said hobbies were the areas of their interest (Management and Coordination Agency, 1992).

With the increasing awareness in health-care, opportunities of learning about disease prevention and identification have considerably improved and expanded. Still some issues remain unsolved; issues of patients with mental disorder due to aftereffects of illness, issues of how to survive diseases and how to respond to improvement of skills and knowledge of health care and nursing, and issues of provision of learning opportunities for relevant information.

2.2. Influence of Stages of Life on Adult Learning Needs

2.2.1. Inclination toward the Vocation-oriented Learning due to Employment

Many working professionals devoting themselves to their work until retirement have an inclination to learn things directly connected with their profession. On the contrary, their needs center around courses related to their personal interests such as hobbies and sports. Apparently there is a gap between the practical needs of workers and their desire (Tanaka, 1995).

2.2.2 Influence of Retirement on the Learning Needs

There are three categories of adult learning needs which become visible with retirement :

1) Areas of hobbies and sports which people wished to explore but could not because of their professional responsibilities. Learning something in these areas is made possible with more leisure time available upon retirement.

2) Vocational training to develop skills necessary for a new position after retirement.

3) Areas of future planning (pre- and post-retirement positions are not included) such as health management, family budget and financial investment, tax and legal knowledge.

As far as the areas mentioned in 1) are concerned, public educational institutions such as Citizen's Public Halls, private educational institutions such as culture centers, junior colleges and universities which offer extension courses have already started providing diverse programs to meet the needs of people.

These areas typically have the highest activity rate among lifelong learners. They are currently attracting attention because they enable retirees to enjoy subjects of their choice for pleasure and their purpose of life, which alleviates stresses after retirement. Retirees who had spent certain amount of time enjoying hobbies before retirement tend to experience less mental stresses than those who solely devoted themselves to their work.

Since career obligations can limit working professionals' sphere of activities and personal relationships, some of them hesitate to familiarize themselves with the habit of attending courses that are not related to their work. Encouraging oneself to pursue such activities before retirement seems to be the key.

The "Law pertaining to the Stabilization of Employment of Middle-and-Older People" enacted in 1986 requires that employers make efforts to provide support for employees' retirement preparation. Private business organizations as well as public corporations founded by ministries and other government agencies now offer educational opportunities in the areas of vocational learning as mentioned in 2) and post-career planning as mentioned in 3).

A 1994 survey conducted by the Ministry of Labor shows that, among companies with a mandatory retirement system, 0.9% of them provided their employees bound to retire in two or three years with training for a next job. The figure was 6.5% for larger companies with over 5,000 employees. 7.5% of the companies surveyed offered counseling services to their employees, and the figure was 24.0% for larger companies. 21.5% (59.2% for larger companies) provided in-house training for future vocational planning and self development for older employees. It was revealed that the number of larger firms providing support for middle-and-older-aged (45 or older) employees was greater than that of smaller firms.

Public corporations under jurisdiction of the ministries and other government agencies provide adult learners with educational programs for a new job after retirement and future planning. The following are some examples; the Association of Employment for Senior Citizens offers seminars on post-retirement planning surrounding issues of health, family budget, finding a new job and recreation; the Association of Better Aging administers courses to train and qualify advisors to teach seminars on subjects such as future life planning, life-designing, and "second career" which deals with employees' post-retirement career options.

3. The Emergence of New Social Activities

3.1. Importance of the Third Area of Learning

Until recently, lifelong learning in Japan has been roughly divided into two categories: vocational training and general education (non-vocational). The latter is in the process of separating into two areas: the area of self-fulfillment, which traditionally is the main purpose of general education, and the area of social development, which now can be considered as the third area that is emerging (Tanaka, 1995c).

A rapidly changing society has contributed to the increasing focus on issues concerning social development such as integrity of environment, cross-cultural sensitivity and unity, coping with an aging society and forming an equal society for both sexes. In the report submitted to the Minister of Education on July 29th 1992 by the Lifelong Learning Council, which is titled "Measures to Promote Lifelong Learning in Response to Social Trends," issues presented were "contemporary issues" and "issues which people feel they need to pursue to nurture humanity"(Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1994b). There issues must be addressed by citizens' own understanding and willingness to find a solution to contribute to well-being of people, civil society, government and community.

At present, there are not enough learning opportunities to help promote understanding of these problems or provide solutions to them. Efforts must be made to make opportunities available regarding problems characteristic of the modern society.

Social development issues recently have stepped into the limelight. Various activities in this area which are on the increase are as follows ; activities for integrity of environment such as recycling and environmental protection efforts on the regional level; tree-planting campaign and protection of wildlife by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) on the international level especially in developing countries (Ministry of Environment, 1995).

However, when ideas of these movements are to put into practice, some confusion is observed regarding what type of activities are truly environment-friendly, what should be done to encourage people to participate in activities, and so forth. Questions arise as to how to assess problems and what kind of measures should be taken to solve them, and this is the very point where the process of learning needs to start for participants. Furthermore, improvement of conditions for such activities by providing adequate information and enhancing social infrastructures is a crucial issue to be addressed.

3.2. Increasing Volunteers and the Limitation of Volunteer Activities

3.2.1. Trends of Volunteer Activity Participation and Increase of Volunteers

Volunteer activities have recently gained a lot of public attention as highly-estimated social activities. In the wake of the Great Hanshin earthquake that hit the Kobe City and surrounding areas in January 1995, a great number of volunteers such as university students descended upon Kobe, which by itself created a sensation. According to a 1994 national opinion poll, those who answered that they were interested in volunteer activities made up 61.9% of the people surveyed, and the figure exceeded 70% in the age group between 40 and 59 of female respondents. 57.7% of the people polled answered that they intended to participate in volunteer activities in the future, and they were divided into two groups: 7.6% wanted to participate in any opportunities of volunteering, and 49.9% said they would like to participate if "they come across an appropriate opportunity." All in all, a keen interest was shown in this area that was quite new to the Japanese society (The Prime Minister's Office, 1994). Other findings include that, among the people who had had some experience in volunteer activities, 9.9% were currently involved in them, and 20.2% had worked as volunteers in the past. Participants in "nature and environmental protection campaigns" such as environmental beautification campaign through recycling accounted for 35.6%, "collecting donations and working at charity bazaars" for 29.3%, "physical training, sports, and cultural activities" for 28.3%, and "activities promoting nurturing of youth and children" for 27.6%.

A 1991 research conducted by the National Institute of Educational Research shows that the percentage of adult lifelong learners who had been involved in volunteer activities in the past and actually had utilized their learning was 13.6%, while that of the people who had not yet participated in such activities but hoped to take advantage of their learning from them in the future was 40.2%. This research suggests adult learners' willingness to make the most of their learning and further explore their knowledge through participation in volunteer activities.

3.2.2. Issues Regarding Volunteer Activities

Though awareness about volunteerism has been raised and the number of working volunteers have grown immensely, several issues have surfaced in this regard, which are scarcity of information and counseling systems, and deficiency of development of non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Since such circumstances pose restrictions or hindrances for accepting and supporting people who are ready to make voluntary contributions, improvement in the infrastructure for volunteerism is desperately needed.

There are three perceptions concerning the relation between lifelong learning and volunteer activities; firstly, the perception that volunteer activities per se are processes of lifelong learning which promote self-development and self-realization of learners; another perception is that lifelong learning is available to obtain knowledge and skills needed for volunteer activities, and volunteer activities are ready to serve as practical opportunities where participants can make the most of what they learned while maturing it; and there is the perception that volunteer activities which support people in the area of lifelong learning further advance the development of their lifelong learning (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1994b).

From the above point of view, two big issues are presented: one is the improvement of fundamental learning opportunities for individuals seeking to become active volunteer workers. And the other is the development of organizations and facilities where learners can present and utilize their learning.

4. Conclusion

4.1. Trends of Adult Learning

4.1.1 Increasing Number of Participants in Lifelong Learning

The number of adult education participants has been constantly increasing over the past decade. Generally speaking, hobbies are the area of lifelong learning where people show the greatest interest. The percentage of participants exploring subjects of health and sports has also risen for these three years.

The popular learning means and methods are basically divided into the following three categories; "self-study", "learning through lecture courses", and "learning in study circles." There are quite a few cases where participants use a combination of methods depending on the contents of their subjects. It has been found that male participants have a tendency to prefer the "self-study" methods whereas female counterparts prefer the "circle" and "lecture courses" methods.

4.1.2. Learning Environments according to Diversified Lifelong Learning

Adult learners progress with the help of well-organized learning opportunities and diversified methods. Obstacles for lifelong learning include limited amount of time available, lack of facilities and scarcity of information. In this connection, essential support needed for learners is not only a systematic provision of learning opportunities but also a materialization of improved learning environments where broader choices are available in terms of time and facilities along with information on them, so that people can design their own blueprints on learning by themselves.

4.1.3. Transformation in Lifelong Learning: Boundaries by the Discipline vs. Boundaries by Objectives

Traditionally, vocational education and general education were considered as separate disciplines. However, boundaries between them are beginning to undergo certain transformation. One major change is there have been increasing needs for elements of general education in in-house corporate training. Meanwhile, education of foreign languages, computer and current affairs has come to require aspects of both vocational education and general education. While there still exist conventional boundaries by disciplines, new boundaries according to learners' objectives have also emerged to pose a transformation in lifelong learning.

4.1.4. Disadvantaged People in Adult Learning

In the hectic business world today, most working professionals cannot afford much time to learn something to their hearts' content, and often times have to suppress their desire to learn. A similar situation is observed in cases of women giving up educational opportunities because of their child-care responsibilities. More attention needs to be paid to those who have learning disadvantages such as the physically handicapped, foreign residents, and minorities. Also, educational opportunities are different from region to region and not equally distributed, which issue remains unsolved.

4.2. Relation between Stages of Life and Lifelong Learning

4.2.1. Learner's Life Stage and Turning Points Altered by Social Changes

Each individual has his/her own turning points that reflect various stages of his/her life: vocationally significant periods such as employment and retirement, family matters such as marriage and children, different stages of motherhood as children grow older and less amount of time is needed for child care, long-term care for the elderly, and diseases.

The average age when one takes up a job after graduation is going up, and so are the ages to get married and have children. Retirement has become more diversified due to major changes in the lifetime employment system. Especially for women, marriage and child birth are traditionally distinct turning points which influence their career. And when they finish devoting most of their time to child care as their children grow older, many of them seek for an employment, which can be considered as another turning point for them. Recently, care for the elderly, mainly one's parents, is often associated with the turning points related to retirement.

4.2.2. Vocational Turning Points Affecting Learning Demands

Stages of one's life involving employment and retirement have important effects on his/her learning demands. Working professionals' learning demands are inclined toward training related to their jobs. On retirement, their leaning demands grow and shift to the following areas: 1)hobbies and sports that they wanted to enjoy but couldn't while they were employed, 2)pre-and post-retirement vocational training for their next positions, and 3)knowledge to plan for the future life other than their professional career.

4.3. Emergence of New Social Activities

4.3.1. Social Development Area Whose Importance is Increasing

With more and more awareness being raised about social activities, a new area of "social development," which is to cope with contemporary issues, has emerged as the third learning area following conventional areas of vocational education and general education of liberal art. In order to establish a perfect civil society for the future, environments including learning opportunities in this area must be enhanced.

4.3.2. Increasing Volunteers

The number of people who intend to participate in volunteer activities is now rapidly growing. However, an infrastructure to accept and support these people has not yet been furnished, thus posing limitations in volunteer activities. Efforts must be made as to facilitating learning for volunteer activities, while providing relevant information and opportunities.

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III-2. Trends in Adult Education in Japan

by Masafumi Tanaka

1. Changing Adult Educational Opportunities

1.1. Municipalities Promoting Learning Classes as an Infrastructure for Adult Education

The post-war non-formal adult education in Japan has developed mainly through activities at Citizen's Public Halls. Established by municipal boards of education, Citizen's Public Halls provide communities with learning opportunities in the areas of education, science, and culture.

The "Social Education Law" enacted in 1949 stipulates the role of such halls as well as the policy of their establishment and management, and regulates the Central and local governments' duties for non-formal education. Citizen's Public Halls are also defined in the "Fundamental Law of Education" (enacted in 1947) as facilities of social education which the Central and local governing bodies are required to establish. Under such circumstances, they have come to play an important role in building an infrastructure of adult education in the Japanese society after World War II.

Currently there are about 18,000 Citizen's Pubic Halls across the nation. They provide various learning opportunities including classes, lectures, cultural and sports programs and festivals. Meeting rooms are open to the public, so that citizens can get together for their club activities. In 1992, the number of courses catering exclusively to adults reached 158,935 (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1995a).

Similar courses are organized not only by prefectural and municipal boards of education, but also institutions under their jurisdiction including Citizen's Public Halls. [Note 1 : Though they are under the jurisdiction of the boards of education, Citizen's Public Halls shall be discussed separately in this paper because of their distinct characters.] The number of such courses intended to educate adults amounted to 186,862 in 1983, 202,508 in 1986, 223,512 in 1989 and 250,038 in 1992, showing a steady growth in the last decade

Meanwhile, general administration bureaus of local governments, namely prefectures, cities, towns and villages, also make similar courses available to their local residents. The number of these courses was 170,728 in 1989, increasing to 188,220 in 1992 (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1992, 1995a).

As mentioned above, organizers of adult education courses are divided into three categories : 1) Citizen's Public Halls, 2) municipal boards of education and educational facilities under their jurisdiction, and 3) general administration bureaus of local governments. The total number of adult education courses offered by those organizers amounted to 438,258 nationwide as of 1992. [Note 2: The target participant is not perfectly clear in the courses offered by general administration bureau. In this analysis, however, all courses except for those in the area of "human resources development" are dealt as being basically adult-oriented.]

1.2. Emergence of Culture Centers and Extension Courses Offered by Universities

In addition to courses administered by local governments, many different courses are offered by public corporations, private companies and universities. Their history dates back to 1975, when most of such organizations started opening or creating diversified courses. The most outstanding among them are 1) educational programs organized by the private sector, namely Culture Centers, and 2) extension courses developed by higher academic institutions such as universities and colleges.

A 1993 survey on 592 Culture Centers throughout Japan shows that 77% of them began offering commercial programs in or after 1975 (Ministry of International Trade and Industry, 1994a). In 1993, 54,950 courses in total were presented by Culture Centers.

According to another survey conducted by the Lifelong Learning Bureau at the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, a total of 4,590 extension courses were administered by 452 universities and colleges in 1993 (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1995a). The percentage of such institutions to the entire university and college population increased from 45% in 1979 to 85% in 1993. The total number of courses grew by 3.8 times over the period of 14 years. As far as extension courses at high schools are concerned, the number has gradually increased, with a modest number of 825 courses reported at the time of the survey. It is obvious that Japan's educational scene in extension courses at present revolves around higher academic institutions such as universities and colleges.

From the standpoint of areas of learning, Culture Centers have more specific and detailed course systems in hobby-related areas, whereas universities and colleges provide more substantial and sophisticated programs in the areas of humanities, social science, natural science and current social issues. Both facilities have offered to adult learners high-level educational programs, which traditional governmental courses cannot provide.

1.3. Emergence of Citizen's Colleges

In the early 1980s, local governments also started to offer courses in "Citizen's Colleges" which are different from traditional lecture courses. The Citizen's College is a community-based project providing high-level general education in cooperation with universities to meet the learning needs of citizens in the community (Ikeda, 1994). Approximately 500 citizen's colleges have been established by 1995 and offered a total of 4,434 courses (National Institute for Educational Research of Japan ; NIER, 1995a). Citizen's colleges are classified as adult education which focuses on high-level education in liberal arts and civic consciousness, such as environmental protection, regional welfare, and international cooperation.

Administered by local governments, private companies and higher educational institutions, these courses have shown a tendency of leveling and diversification in their contents of learning. In comparison, however, traditional courses offered by governments constitute a far greater part of the adult education courses, and have played a major role as an infrastructure of adult education.

1.4. Traditional Private Lessons

Courses on Japanese traditional arts such as flower arrangement, tea ceremony, Japanese koto or a kind of zither also comprise an important part of adult education, though there are no comprehensive statistics on the matter. These courses are basically private lessons usually taught at instructors' homes to learners who are achievement-oriented. Their class size is typically small. In the last few years, the status of such private lessons, characteristic of the Japanese society, have been quite steady and appeared to accommodate itself to adult education in Japan.

1.5. Recent trends in Formal Education - an "Open System"

The types of current courses and curricula for formal education easily accessible to adults are stated in the chapters 1 and 2. What has greatly influenced the improvement of current adult education is to open school facilities and functions in higher education to the public. The following are examples of such an "Open System": (1) selection procedures of entrance examinations specially designed for adults, (2) evening courses at graduate schools, (3) courses offered in both the daytime and the evening, (4) the University of the Air, an open university which offers degrees through a combination of correspondence and lecture courses, and (5) the Special Register System, which allows non-traditional students who are not formally enrolled to take courses of their choice at universities, junior colleges and technical colleges, and credits taken can be recognized as regular credits.

These policies and systems have begun to permeate into the world of higher educational institutions and are expected to be of great assistance to adult learners. (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1995b; Saitoh, 1992; University of the Air, 1995).

1.6. Training Systems for Educators Who Train Adult Learners

In the "open" system stated above, no cases have been observed where trained educators instruct adult learners. Systematically-organized courses and curricula laid out for such educators have not yet been developed. Therefore, traditional instructors, who usually teach young people, teach adult learners as well. Quality of instructors dealing with curricula for adults in higher educational institutions or in upper secondary schools will become more and more important in the future, and training of university teachers as educators as well as relevant training for them must be developed.

Instructors of non-formal adult education do not have training courses for them, either. However, there exist courses for specialists other than teachers, which train Social Education Officers who plan and implement adult education programs. Yet there courses need to be improved in the following three points: time for training is too short; continuing training systems are not complete; often times specialists' expertise is not evaluated appropriately in the workplace and personnel transfers are made inadequately, discouraging them to take full advantage of their abilities (Tanaka, 1994).

2. Evaluation and Practical Application of Learning Achievement

1.1. Certification in General Education

With the exception of vocational training, specialties in areas of education such as guidance of youth, sports and welfare, learners of adult education traditionally were not evaluated or certified on the basis of achievement. In recent years, however, learners can be certified after completing a certain level of learning also in non-specialized courses, which have started gaining attention. In a 1994 national survey, the percentage of municipalities that offered certified courses reached 62.0% in 1993 (NIER , 1994). Another survey conducted in 1995 by Private Culture Business Association shows that 55.3% of Culture centers which offer commercial-base courses issued certificates on the completion of courses. According to Yoshihiro Yamamoto of NIER, adult education is classified into two groups : "achievement-oriented learning" in which tangible achievement is the goal of the learner; and "affiliation-oriented learning" in which the learner enjoys social relationships with others. Yamamoto also points out that among courses that are affiliation-oriented, people have begun to feel the need for certain types of evaluation and certification for what they have accomplished. Evaluation systems need to be established with an emphasis on the pleasure of learning, states Yamamoto

(Y. Yamamoto, 1995).

2.2. Professional Evaluation on Obtaining Academic Degrees by Adults

It goes without saying that qualifications of working professionals are highly appreciated in the workplace. Yet academic degrees in higher educational institutions in terms of achievement of learning do not always meet with the same appreciation. As mentioned before, adult learners' attendance in courses looking at academic degrees has been improving and more such learners has been participating. However, there exists no system by which professional justification and appraisal are given. In fact, many students taking evening courses at graduate schools share the feeling that acquisition of an academic degree does not necessarily secure their promotion in the workplace (Tanaka, 1990).

According to a 1993 survey which looked into company employers' perception on universities and graduates schools, it is obvious that more diversified courses on vocational training, in the form of short-term intensive courses, for instance, are needed rather than expansion of regular variations of education offered by universities and graduate schools (Tawara, 1993). The surveyed employers' expectations for their employees who acquired academic degrees by going back to school are generally low, while they are high for employees taking up practical vocational training directly connected with their positions.

2.3. Contribution of Adult Education to the Society

2.3.1. Practical Use of Achievement in Community Activities

The Lifelong Learning Council suggested in 1992 that development of an environment in which people could actively and practically use their achievement in volunteer activities was important. Since then, the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture and local governments have tried to enhance policies stressing the importance of the connection between learning activities and volunteer activities.

A national survey conducted by NIER in 1994 indicates that 27.7% of the municipalities had developed training courses for volunteering, while the percentage of the municipalities which had established "Volunteer Banks" reached 63.2% (including those at the stage of planning such resources). The Volunteer Bank registers and dispatches people who have the intention to be involved in voluntary activities in the community.

Recently, there is an increasing number of cases where the local governments award those who finished their courses qualifications of their own, such as "lifelong learning advisor" and "assistant curators." However, most of these qualifications differ greatly from region to region in terms of levels, curricula, and target areas and have not yet been systematized (Tsuji, 1994).

2.3.2. Underdevelopment of Community-Based Organizations

Opportunities for volunteer activities in communities are typically provided by private non-profit organizations such as community-based groups, but such entities are not well-developed in Japan. In the United States and European countries, for example, there is at least one NGO dealing with environmental protection activities with more than 500,000 members each (Ecosystem Conservation Society of Saitama, 1992). In contrast, even the Wild Bird Society, Japan's largest nature protection organization, has only 50,000 members. It will be a great challenge for the administration not only to strengthen "volunteer banks" and provide standards for the above-mentioned regional qualifications, but also make efforts to help develop citizen's groups such as NGOs, while building structures to connect NGO activities and training course for volunteers.

Yet in recent years, more and more grass-root activities have been nurtured by community-based organizations. Though the number of these organizations is not clear, it has been found that opportunities where people can fully take advantage of their abilities in volunteer activities have been steadily expanding. What is needed for the future are systems which support and promote these organizations.

2.4. "Borderless" Environment between Professional Qualifications and Volunteer Qualifications

It was not until recently when a new set of diverse qualifications called "qualifications for participating in volunteer activities" started being observed in community-based activities. As the environment surrounding qualifications is beginning to improve, there is an increasing number of part-time specialists and "paid volunteers," who are specialists basically work with no compensation but provided some expenses such as transportation.

Also, there has been an increasing likelihood that boundaries between professional qualifications for earning income and non-professional qualifications may become vaguer. Generally speaking, housewives and senior retirees are the principal participants in this "borderless" area as "paid volunteers" and/or part-time specialists.

3. Influences of the Changing Working Society

3.1. Have Working Hours been Shortened?

Japanese working hours has shown a decline over the last several years. In 1993 the annual total of the hours worked by a person was 1,920 hours, whereas in 1994 it was 1,910 (Ministry of Labor, 1995a). In case of scheduled working hours, companies reported that their total weekly working hours was 39 hours and 51 minutes on the average as of December 31, 1993. This figure is

12 minutes shorter than that of the same time in the previous year (Ministry of Labor, 1995a). However, "Practical Overtime," which means additional work done at home in the evening or on holidays or additional work not reported to one's superiors, were not reflected in this statistics. In addition, work done by individuals through training courses outside the organization or longer commuting hours due to their lives in the suburbs would also not be reflected in the statistical figures and would therefore not account for overtime work. It is possible that the actual working hours might not be shortened as they should.

Adding to the problem, the recent economic recession in Japan and subsequent fear of lay-off has contributed to more overtime worked, obstructing the view of "Actualization of society with expanding leisure time through a shortened working hours."

3.2. Trends in Corporate Training

3.2.1. Transformation of Corporate Training

Since the early 1980s, with the dramatic change in the situation surrounding management, Japanese companies have sought a new sphere of training. Companies, when dealing with their in-house training, have been obliged to take into consideration social changes such as the transformation of the industrial structure, technical innovations, internationalization, the aging of employees, and taking advantage of abilities of women as an important part of the work horse.

Recent changes in environments such as the needs for internationalization education, technical experts training, and the work horse education for senior and female employees present a different picture in the scene of adult education. A MITT (Ministry of International Trade and Industry) survey consigned to the All-Japan Federation of Management Organizations (1985) revealed that more and more employers thought vocational training coping with such environmental changes would become more important in the future. On the other hand, a smaller number of employers thought that traditional education to raise awareness as members of the companies such as introduction training for new employees and management skills training would be more important.

In the latest questionnaire concerning purposes of future training for white-collar workers at Japanese companies, which was conducted by the Ministry of Labor in 1994, the following two answers marked the highest percentages : 53.2% of the companies surveyed replied "high level of specialization" was their purpose and 50.1% cited "relevant qualifications." Since 1985, with more and more women working and the aging of employees progressing, manpower strategies for middle-age and older workers and female employees have become important management issues for Japanese firms. They need high-level training that is more specific and substantial to cater to the two groups constituting a crucial part of their work horse.

3.2.2. Expansion of Outsourcing

In the emerging area of vocational training, few companies can meet the above-stated requirements totally by themselves. More and more business organizations have come to leave training of their employees to outside training institutions. According to the results of a recent study over the three-year-period from 1990 to 1992, the percentage of companies which sent their employees to outside vocational training reached 97.3% (Ministry of Labor, 1994). It was found, however, that the smaller the size of the company, the slimmer the chance of its sending their employees to outside training programs due to manpower shortage. Meanwhile, larger firms apparently had much more resources for such training; many of them had education departments or had developed training programs of their own. The gap is widening between large and small companies in this respect.

3.2.2. Promotion of Self-development

The importance of self-development initiated by corporate employees has become evident, as the idea of training focusing on individuals has spread in business circles. This idea, which is to be discussed later in this report, means that each individual spontaneously takes advantage of educational opportunities for the purpose of upgrading their professional abilities without being ordered by their employers. The "Wise Men's Conference on Promotion of Self-development" (1995) defines that employees' self-development as the "human resources development initiated by individuals" and suggests policies to promote this.

According to a 1995 survey conducted by the Ministry of Labor (1995c), which illustrates the situation of companies' support for self-development of their employees, 70.2% of the firms surveyed gave financial support for enrollment fees, 53.2% had "consideration for the working hours," and 53.1% provided "information on vocational training." 51.5% offered classes and seminars, and 23.1% granted paid holidays for education to their employees. As for the number of actual paid holidays granted for education, 45.4% of the companies offering support for self-development granted paid holidays of less than 3 days, 31.6% granted 3 to less than 10 days (Ministry of Labor, 1993).

3.3. Trends of Policy concerning in Labor Market and Re-training

In reports and white papers submitted by councils of the central government, the trends of the labor market and retraining policies are systematically classified into the following sections (Economic Planning Agency, 1995; Ministry of Labor, 1991, 1995a, 1995b; Ministry of International Trade and Industry, 1994).

3.3.1. Attention to Manpower as an Industrial Infrastructure

Since manpower is regarded as a fundamental resource to empower the industrial society of Japan, it is extremely important to make the quality of workers even higher, and to have talented people available for renewing the economy. In other words, the idea of economic renewal through a leveling of the talent by top standards is needed.

3.3.2. Plans to Recruit Researchers

In an effort to recruit creative, talented people as part of an industrial infrastructure, it is crucial to place greater emphasis on the following: improvement of education and research environments mainly at science and engineering departments of both universities and graduate schools; promotion of exchanges and transfers of researchers between industrial circles and public research institutions such as universities; and granting researchers sufficient incentives to further encourage their studies, such as financial investment in researchers and a compensation system based on researchers' performance.

3.3.3. Flexibility in the Labor Market

The following four are problems from the standpoint of the supply and demand of labor force:

- Difference in population of age groups (increasing aged employees and decreasing young employees)
- Difference in employees' abilities (shortage of creative and talented workers)
- Scarcity of variety of positions (shortage of specialists)
- Lack of awareness about women as part of the work horse

It is crucial to solve the above problems in the supply and demand of the labor force in order to maintain talented workers who help enhance organizations. For an improved flexibility of labor force and market, the Japanese industrial society must be confronted with the transition from a closed market to an open one.

3.3.4. Educational Training Support Focusing on an Individual

In order to ensure a good supply of quality manpower, each worker should wish and strive for building up one's career in a self-restrained professional manner. Also, it is necessary for employers to spur their workers through improved mandated training, and through increasing opportunities to participate in outside vocational training. The paid holiday system is applied to such outside training, which supports workers' self-development. This suggests a new stage of vocational training, which presents a transition from the conventional "organization-centered" training to the training with more focus on individual workers.

To realize the above idea, the Ministry of Labor established the "Institution for Business Career," aiming at cultivating white collar workers, or those who are placed in generalist positions in organizations, to be fitted for specialist positions through their obtaining qualifications and training.

The phrase "Lifelong Human Resources Development" appears in the Basic Plan for Human Resource Development initiated by the Ministry of Labor. The idea represented by the phrase stresses the importance of self-development support systems such as the paid holidays for educational purposes. In brief, the Ministry of Labor recommends that employees continue their vocational learning not only as part of training mandated by the organizations they belong to, but also through continuous self-practice throughout their daily lives.

4. Reconstruction of Roles in Adult Education

4.1. Development of a Total Promotion Structure in Administrative Institutions

As part of the central government's preparation for laying out an integrated infrastructure to promote lifelong learning, the Lifelong Learning Council was established by the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture in 1990. In addition, the Lifelong Learning Conference involving relevant ministries and agencies was founded by the same ministry four years later.

At the local government level as well, in accordance with the statute of the "Law Concerning the Development of Mechanisms and Measures for Promoting Lifelong Learning," all the 47 prefectures of the country have established Lifelong Learning Councils of their own. Approximately 40% of all municipalities have established organizations working as lifelong learning liaisons for relevant bureaus and departments (NIER, 1995b).

Adult education policies have operated as part of the overall development of lifelong learning. The collaboration between the ministries and other agencies of the national government as well as collaboration among the local governmental bureaus has been realized in a more and more completed form.

4.2. Collaboration among Administrative Organizations, Companies, and Community-based Organizations

4.2.1. Collaboration in the Area of Vocational Training

The central government and its bureaus as well as the public sector and other sectors have collaborated in developing policies for lifelong learning. Pilot vocational training projects developed and implemented by the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture in eight regions, which are called "Programs Promoting Recurrent Education, " proceeded during the four-year-period from 1991 to 1994.

Under these programs, higher educational institutions, local government bodies, and the industrial world in each region have organized the Regional Council Promoting Recurrent Education. In addition, this program provides courses on vocational knowledge and skills for working professionals.

4.2.2. Collaboration Within the Area of General Education

Collaboration among sectors of general education takes various forms. The following are some of the examples : private educational institutions such as Culture Centers provide courses using facilities established by the public sector; extension courses given at universities are planned and managed through cooperation municipalities and local universities; community-based organizations are allowed to utilize facilities owned by private companies; advocacy groups of nature protection tie up with schools in programs of environmental studies; events regarding lifelong learning are organized through the joint effort by community-based organizations and local administrations; and governments provide expenses and facilities for courses offered by particular community groups.

At present, however, the power of the central government exerted over regional governments is enormous in this country, though the latter are beginning to take the initiative in many areas. In spite of the increasing number of commercial-based educational activities such as Culture Centers and university extension programs, administrative institutions still play a key role in the collaboration of lifelong learning systems. Most of the projects mentioned above have been developed by institutions of the central government. What is needed now is a system in which citizen's groups and administrative organizations have equal partnership to build up a better structure for an integrated lifelong learning society.

4.3. The Prospect of Learning Support Systems

Fueled by active arguments about the importance of cooperation among institutions and groups in adult education, the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture published a document called "Development of Lifelong Learning Network Manual" in 1990 (Ishii, 1990) based on its extensive research on the matter. This manual suggests methods and views concerning the establishment of a learning support system which requires collaboration among school education, social education, administrative bureaus, private companies and community-based organizations in terms of exchanges of courses, information, facilities, and human resources. Specific examples of collaborative systems are provided in the document.

The idea of "Lifelong Learning Network" developed by the Tokyo Metropolitan Government refers to cooperative projects in the Metropolitan area between local governments and companies, which are in the preparatory stage before the implementation. The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture is also making progress in the study of "Lifelong Learning College Systems," which is a network of non-formal educational systems, consisting of all kinds of activities such as university extension courses, social education classes, programs offered by the administration, and correspondence courses via TV and radio broadcasting. The network also presents broader opportunities of lifelong learning aiming at creating a new educational structure that incorporates three traditional types of systems; schools, society, and family (Yamamoto,T., 1994).

5. Financial Problems

5.1. Diversification of Sources of Revenue and Their Components

There are very few data regarding sources of revenue for adult education. Since there is no clear definition as to which policies of the ministries and other agencies of the government are applicable to lifelong learning, neither official data on the total budget for lifelong learning nor those on the budget component ratio for each ministry are available. Only the estimated total of the annual expenditures for lifelong learning is available, which is about 3 to 4 trillion yen including expenditures for youth education and adult lifelong learning (Senuma, 1995).

Each prefecture has a different size of budget on lifelong learning depending on its financial situation, and some prefectures may not afford as much as they would like to. However, a study conducted in several prefectures shows that the budget for the board of education in the prefectures surveyed accounts for 20% to 40% of the entire budget for their governments (Lifelong learning Research Association in NIER, 1993). This figure includes both adult and youth education.

There are numerous public-service corporations offering lifelong learning programs. It is said that the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture holds jurisdiction over approximately 250 to 300 public-service corporations. Unfortunately, no comprehensive data exist regarding the budget for lifelong learning or adult education programs.

5.2. Controversy Over Benefits of Adult Education

Currently there is little controversy over the benefits which adult education brings to the society. In both national and local governments of Japan, the reason why adult learning should be supported is rarely discussed, although the necessity of developing systematic policies to support it has been repeatedly stressed. In general, effective measures to support adult education tend to be sought after rather than the goals or objectives of it.

Nevertheless, it is interesting to know that adult education in this country can be discussed using the following three models according to its stages of development. The first model is the Industrial Society Model. This is a policy model which contributes to the development of the industrial society and its benefits are mainly measured by the economic effects it yields. Policies in this model include realization of a mature labor market through development of vocational education, vitalization of private educational institutions such as Culture Centers, and government packages to stimulate the economy through enhancement of the infrastructure such as learning centers.

The second is the Welfare State Model. This model encompasses policies which the central and local governments implement as part of their public services for lifelong learning. In response to the needs of the general public, this model also embraces improvement of learning opportunities in the areas of hobbies, liberal arts, sports and recreational activities. In this model, social benefits are evaluated by the degree of improvement in what is generally called the "welfare index" of the society, which refers not only to aspects of social welfare administered by the government, but also the nation's overall well-being including educational and cultural aspects.

As learning services progress, they help improve health and well-being of people, which eventually may contribute to reducing expenses for national public health.

The third model is the Civil Society Model. This is a lifelong learning policy model to encourage citizen's activities and volunteerism, so that the people can contribute to the society by spontaneously participating in social operations. Lifelong learning that takes place in the Civil Society Model produces courses to increase citizen's awareness about issues regarding environmental protection, regional welfare, international relations and so forth. It also stresses the importance of developing a system in which learners can utilize their learning acquired through their volunteer activities. The realization of such a model depends on a mature society where community-based organizations demonstrate the power of social management through organizations such as NGOs and NPOs.

Currently the Industrial Society Model has a strong persuasive power in Japan, whereas the Welfare State Model has been criticized from time to time because of its nature of spending public funds for achieving private purposes of life. Still, it is fair to say that this model is accepted in the society as a measure of social development.

Despite the fact that the needs for the Civil Society Model have been emphasized by many people, specific policies have not been presented by the government. In order to improve and promote democratic social management and non-governmental activities in the international community, the Civil society Model will play an important role in the development of models of adult education in this country.

5.3. The System Motivating Lifelong Learning

There have been active movement surrounding cooperative systems between institutions and organizations and diversified learning opportunities, including special procedures for admission and quotas for non-traditional adult students to enter universities. In comparison, systems to motivate individuals to learn have not been sufficiently developed. There are two kinds of such systems as follows : 1) Support systems for time and economic aspects, including paid-leave, provision of child care and care for the elderly for educational purposes, as well as educational vouchers and scholarships for learners, and 2) Evaluation and certification systems for learners' accomplishments, such as evaluation of working professionals' recurrent education and certifications for regional and social activities.

As far as the working society is concerned, however, the situation have improved to further encourage working professionals' desire for learning, with the enhancement of vocational qualifications systems, provision of the "Self-Development Grant" by the Ministry of Labor and so forth. Challenges for the lifelong learning society in Japan will be to support and perfect such systems in areas other than business circles.

6. Development of Bridging Mechanisms in Adult Education

6.1. Bridging Mechanism in Formal Education

In Japan's traditional school system, a student can obtain a diploma from high school or university only when he/she has completed requisite courses and required number of credits from one institution (excluding students in the Credit Transfer System). However, the National Institution for Academic Degrees and a Special Register System have recently been established, creating a bridging mechanism which offers a more flexible, interactive system between institutions. This system allows junior college graduates (or people with an equivalent academic background) to receive a bachelor's degree after they have taken required credit hours at higher educational institutions.

In the upper secondary education, what is called Credit-System High Schools have been introduced to facilitate the situation for students who transferred to schools in other districts. The transition from one school to another has been made easier with credit exchanges, so that the students can continue their study without having to worry about academic obstacles that such transfer might bring.

6.2. Bridging Mechanism to Connect Formal Education with Non-Formal Education

In order to receive bachelor's, master's or doctoral degrees in Japan, one must graduate from higher educational institutions under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. Institutions under the jurisdictions of the other ministries and agencies of the central government are not authorized to award such academic degrees to their students. Some of these institutions include the Polytechnic University of the Ministry of Labor and the National Defense Academy of the Defense Agency. The reason is that such institutions were not established based on the "Standards for the Establishment of Universities" by the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. However, the newly-founded National Institution for Academic Degrees is authorized to award academic degrees equivalent to the years of learning of the candidates at the above-mentioned institutions, with a screening by examining papers for bachelor's degrees, and by examining theses for master's and doctor's degrees.

High schools have traditionally adopted a special credit counting system which acknowledges credits taken by students outside their school system. If students demonstrate successful results in achievement tests of English, kanji (Chinese characters) and so forth, or an exceptional achievement in vocational schools, the high school accept them as official credits. At universities, thanks to the flexibility of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities, students' achievement in educational institutions outside the universities such as successful results in the "Practical English proficiency Test" have been accepted as credits. Thus, the area of non-formal education has gradually been incorporated into the world of formal education.

7.Conclusion

7.1. Expansion of Opportunities in Adult Education

Lecture courses administered by local governments and private lessons are still functioning as an important part of the infrastructure to support non-formal adult education in Japan.

Meanwhile, new opportunities of lifelong learning have emerged in different forms such as Culture Centers, university and high school extension courses, and Citizen's Colleges. Meanwhile, substantial improvement has been demonstrated by the expansion of the sphere of formal education programs and opening them to adult learners. Examples of such improvement include special selection procedures for adults applicants of universities, the University of the Air which is an open academic institution, and the Special Register System described in Part 1-5.

Issues faced by corporate training include development of strategies to make the most of abilities of women and older employees in the work horse as well as upgrading the contents of learning to reflect the sophistication of the modern age. In an effort to solve these issues, varied forms of education have been tried anew: mandated in-house training given by companies, outsourcing of educational training, and self-development support systems for workers.

While Japan's adult education has gradually been improved and diversified, differences in opportunities and resources seem to be widening. The Difference between large companies and small-and-medium sized companies in terms of the quality of vocational training is a good example in the business world. In case of non-formal education, learners who have more leisure time than those with a tighter schedule can easily take advantage of learning opportunities. The accessibility to formal education is dependent on learners' financial situation, creating a gap between the "haves" and "have nots." From both quality and quantity points of view, learners in large cities are much more advantageous than those in rural areas. Rectification of these differences is a crucial task for future policies of adult education.

7.2. Active Role of Non-education Sector

The concept of lifelong learning has widely spread in the society. In response to the situation, the non-educational sectors in both the national and local governments have been actively involved in adult education policies which cope with administrative problems of each sector. In private business organizations, an increasing number of top management believe that outstanding talents are a key factor in good management, and more and more emphasis has come to be placed on human resources development. In this connection, cooperation of various forms has progressed between formal education and non-formal education sectors, as well as between local governments' boards of education and companies, universities, and schools. Programs for promotion of recurrent education, the Lifelong Learning Network, and the Lifelong Learning College System are some examples, which are in the state of trial and error. Sectionalism barriers still remaining in educational departments must be demolished little by little, and an integrated system of adult education must be constructed. Development of adult educator training programs is an important prerequisite to pave the way for the construction of a full-fledged, integrated system.

7.3. Evaluation and Application of Achievement

Obtaining an academic degree has been made easier for adult learners due to the better access to studying on a part-time basis and improved credit-exchange systems at universities. In the world of business, however, no system exists to adequately evaluate degrees obtained by workers through adult education courses. Yet workers are expected to go through practical vocational training to be used in their daily jobs. From the vantage point of professional usefulness, contents of university adult education need to be reviewed and improved.

The number of paid-volunteers and part-timer specialists is increasing as qualifications systems on the non-vocational platform are established and support for utilization of learning accomplishments are encouraged.

The above phenomenon appears to have made the barriers between vocational qualifications and non-vocational qualifications less noticeable than ever. At the same time, it created new opportunities for housewives and older people who for a long time had been excluded from the labor market, and is welcomed because of its nature of a social improvement initiated by citizens.

7.4. Focusing on the Individual

Some improvement has been observed in the existing systems which provide learning opportunities for individuals while meeting their various needs. Extension of formal education, cooperation between educational departments, and part-time university education are some of the examples of such systems. Private companies have begun turning their eyes to the idea of focusing on the individual in their attempt to encourage self-development and flexible working hours.

In order to further improve adult education with an emphasis on the individual, more support in terms of time and money is indispensable. Examples include paid-holidays, educational vouchers, scholarships, child-care and care for other family members. Development of adult education in Japan has been slow due to lack of time and economic support, and this is a serious issue to be considered.

7.5. The Prospect of a Civil Society Model in Adult Education

The basic concept supporting adult educational policies is constantly changing due to the turbulent social conditions in Japan. Yet three models of adult education can be defined in the changing society.

When the economy is either in a state of rapid growth or stagnation, the Industrial Society Model is considered to be important. When the society is in a mature and stable state, the Welfare State Model attracts attention. And the Civil Society Model is quintessential when a new social system is under construction and value systems of people are fluctuating.

A reform of economic and welfare policies for the well-being of the nation will remain important in the future. However, as Japan must play a leading role in the global community with rapidly changing value systems, a totally new form of adult education based on the Civil Society Model must be created, and sustainable development of non-profit private organizations such as NGOs and NPOs is desperately needed.

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IV. Changes and Trends of Learning Environment in Japan

by Yoshihiro Yamamoto (NIER)

Introduction

Information media have rapidly grown and diversified during the latter half of the 20th century, exerting their influence over politics, economy, culture and daily lives of people. Questions arise as to how this diversification of media affect our lives. What changes should we expect in our learning environments? What kind of educational policies do we need in response to such changes? These are problems faced not only by Japan but also by the rest of the countries and regions in the international society.

The highly-informed society of today urges people to learn any information literacy as the common and emergent tasks; the two requirements of "communality" and "emergency" are cited as major contemporary tasks of lifelong learning by the Lifelong Learning Committee of Japan in its report submitted in 1992.

Meanwhile, democracy has encouraged citizen's groups to participate in planning processes of educational policies, in which the administration would exclusively take the initiative. Due to the advancement of deregulation and outsourcing as well as expansion of the education industry, designing of educational policies no longer relates only to public educational institutions. Substantial changes in learning environments have been made in active involvement of private educational institutions, utilization of information, and democratization of education. These changes have brought new indices in educational policies at conventional adult educational organizations.

Among learning opportunities via communication media, television and radio broadcasting has had a significant influence on lifelong learning environments.

In the light of the above, this report discusses learning environments in Japan focusing on the following three aspects. Firstly, the nation's basic learning resources are presented. They include educational and cultural facilities as the infrastructure, books, magazines and newspapers as literacy media, TV, radio, movies, videos and CDs as audio-visual media. Use of personal computers at home and schools are cited as examples of new media representing the age of information technology. Secondly, questions are raised as to how we can develop new systems and networks of education and learning by using the above-mentioned media, and as to whether or not we are efficiently utilizing such media. Thirdly, specific data on how private profit organizations and local governments help stimulate lifelong learning environments are examined.

1. Proposition of Basic Learning Resources

1.1. Accessibility to Cultural and Educational Facilities

1.1.1. Facilities of Culture and Education

In many countries and regions, libraries and museums are operated by different sections of the government, whereas in Japan, most of them are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (MOESC) and defined as facilities for social education. In some cases, however, museums are treated as cultural facilities by the central and local governments.

According to the MOESC statistics in 1995, there were 2,172 public libraries, consisting of 1,607 main libraries and 565 branch libraries across the nation. The number of cities and towns with libraries was 1,298 in total, which means 39.8 % of the municipalities had their own libraries. 94 % of the cities, 30% of the towns, and 10% of the villages were owners of libraries. It was found that the smaller the municipality, the lower the percentage of installing the facility. The volume of books contained in one library was approximately 90,000,and the number of full-time staff members was nine on the average.

A total of 100 million people are said to have borrowed books from libraries in 1993, and children accounted for 26 % of the borrowers. The number of libraries doubled during the nearly two decades from 1975 to 1993. The number of borrowers increased 4.6 times and the volume of books contained in the libraries grew more than 4.4 times over the same period. Public libraries recently have served as facilities for various activities for citizens.

The MOESC survey shows that the number of museums as of 1993 was861. Among them, the number of art museums was 281 (33 % of the museums), historical museums 274 (32 %), integrated museums 109 (13%), and science museums 89 (10%). There were 15 staff members per museum on the average, with the largest number of 66 in a zoo and a botanical garden, followed by 53 in another zoo. The total number of museum users in 1992 was 13 million and 21 % of them were children.

1.1.2. Athletic Facilities and the Others

In 1993, the number of athletic facilities for citizens under the jurisdiction of MOESC was 40,663 in total. Playgrounds for exercises accounted for 13 % of the facilities, gymnasium 13 % (5,098 buildings), and ballparks 13 %. About 60 million people used the facilities supported by 75,000 staff members.

MOESC also conducted a survey on private athletic facilities and obtained data from 12,329 groups, which stands for the response rate of 78%. Driving ranges for golf were the facilities with the largest number, which was 2,662 or 16% of the respondents. Golf courses accounted for 11 %, and tennis courts 11%. The remaining population included indoor swimming pools, grounds for gate ball and croquet, gymnasiums, and bowling alleys.

As of 1993, 1,261 halls and auditoriums including facilities at community centers were found to have a capacity of more than 300 seats. 60% of the cities and 20% of the towns in the country had such facilities. The number of personnel working in them was 13,000, and 8,900 of them were full-time employees. 23,000 performances of "stage art" were presented, attracting the audience of 19 million.

1.2 Learning Environments Provided by Printed Media

1.2.1. Books and Magazines

This section refers to the current situation of publication and reading habits of the general public, reading environments for people and their communities, and an expansive movement of reading. It is said that the average Japanese spends about 48 minutes a day reading, and 34 minutes of it is devoted to reading newspapers. The number of books and magazines he/she reads in a month is about 5 on the average, which consists of 0.6 volume of hard-cover books, 0.9 volume of paper backs, and 1.4 volumes of magazines.

Supporting Japanese who are avid readers, the annual circulation of books is about 1,400 million in total, and some 46,000 new books are published year by year. 2,979 kinds of magazines boast of a total circulation of 5 billion a year; 3 million copies of monthly magazines and 2 billion copies of weekly magazines are sold. The number of sold-out books is 800 million and that of magazines is 3.9 billion, the sales of books and magazines exceed 1 trillion yen respectively.

One significant feature of the publications in Japan is "manga," or Japanese-style cartoons or comic strips. As much as 36% of the entire publication in the country is manga, and this ratio is increasing each year. Not just a simple form of entertainment, manga, with its well-crafted story lines, embraces numerous genres such as business, culture, history, classics, love story, social problems, catering to adults and children alike. Some manga books are even used as textbooks.

Manga magazines are classified into four categories, which are boys', girls', youth and adult magazines. Taking an adult manga magazine for example, it has about 300 pages and contains 11 story-type cartoons and 4 nonsense comic strips; their themes include a heroic saga, hotel, office, sumo-wrestling, sports, artist, history, animal, family, and handicapped people.

1.2.2. Newspapers

According to a 1994 study entitled "National Newspaper Guide" which was conducted by the Japan Newspaper Society, the annual circulation of newspapers in 1993 was about 72 million in total, and each copy of newspaper was read by 1.72 person. The reading time for newspapers was about 41 minutes a day. The average time of reading newspapers was 47 minutes for male and was 36 minutes for female readers. It was found that people in their twenties spent 31 minutes reading newspapers on the average, people in their forties spent 41 minutes, and people of 60 years or older spent 57 minutes. The older the reader, the longer the reading time. The ratio of people who read everyday was 75 % of the readers surveyed.

1.3. Development of Audio-Visual Media.

1.3.1. Television, Radio, Movies and Videos

The saturation level of TV sets in Japanese households was 99 % in 1993. The utilization rate of satellite broadcasting was 27 %, which has gradually increased in recent years (Dentsu Souken, 1995). As of 1992, the broadcasting time of NHK (Nihon Hoso Kyoukai, or National Broadcasting Association operated with license fees paid by viewers), was 19 hours a day, and most of commercial TV stations broadcast 20 hours a day.

Commercial programs made up 86 % of the total broadcasting time in commercial TV stations. 13 % of the broadcasting was educational programs, and 25 % was cultural programs. News programs were 21 %, entertainment shows were 39 % of the entire programs.

People's TV viewing habits have greatly changed with the spread of VCRs in households. The saturation level of VCRs in households was 84 % in 1995. One thing worthy of note is that forms of VCR use have changed year by year. Back in 1985, 93% of VCR owners used their VCRs to record programs, but in 1995 the ratio dropped to 80%. Meanwhile, VCR owners viewing rental videotapes increased from 19% to 45 % during the period between 1985 and 1995. Those who used homemade videos increased from 16 % to 27 %. (Matsusawa, 1995)

1.3.2. Institutions and Utilization of Broadcasting Media

Radio broadcasting in Japan started in 1925. Two years later, three broadcasting stations in Tokyo, Osaka, and Nagoya formed the "Japan Broadcast Society, " which was a quasi-public organization operated with licensing fee paid by listeners. The year 1928 was the beginning of the new era of radio broadcasting , and it grew so quickly there by 1935, 25 nationwide radio stations had been established. In 1951,2 stations in Nagoya and Osaka became private and started operating on advertisement revenue.

TV broadcasting on an experiment basis was launched in 1927, but it was not until 1953 when regular operations started. After that, the life of the Japanese continued improving year by year, while TV sets rapidly began being installed in their homes. The country was ready for the age of growth as the government took actions to boost the economy.

By 1993, the number of private TV and radio stations with widespread network services has increased to 184, which includes 10 satellite stations. NHK, the quasi-public station, has one each of general and educational TV channels, two channels of satellite TV broadcasting, one FM radio station and two AM radio stations.

Each prefecture has two to six local TV stations transmitting information on their communities serviced. Both FM and AM radio stations are operating in most prefectures.

Though some TV and radio stations are independently operated, the overwhelming majority of them have a contract with nationwide networks to distribute programs in their service areas. During the past several decades, TV and radio have come to play an integral part of the life of the Japanese people.

Broadcasting businesses are regulated under the Broadcast Law and the Radio Law enacted in 1950. The Broadcast Law stipulates organization of broadcasting corporations, editing of programs, management of the broadcast business, establishment of the Japan Broadcast Society and its management. The Cable Television Broadcast Law went into effect in 1972, which controls permission to operate businesses, editing of programs, etc. Broadcasting is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications.

According to a poll conducted in 1995, the average Japanese spent about three hours a day watching TV on weekdays. The most popular programs were news, which were viewed by 74% of the people surveyed. Weather forecasts were watched by 54% of them, dramas by 51 %, and sports programs by 42 %. Among programs offering learning opportunities, those dealing with liberal art were most popular and 28 % of the respondents watched them. 14 % of them viewed programs providing practical information for the daily life, and 10 % of them went for lecture programs (Matsusawa, 1995).

1.3.3. Learning through Broadcasting Services

It was in the 1960's when MOESC started preparing for the establishment of the University of the Air, which utilizes broadcasting for education. The preparation was accelerated after the Educational Development Center for Broadcasting was opened in 1978 as one of the organizations belonging to the national university cooperative. The center is currently called the "Educational Research Institute for Multi-media." The Law pertaining to the University of the Air was enacted in 1981, and four years later, the university opened its courses only in the Kanto region surrounding the Metropolitan area.

With more than 10,000 enrollments of students, The university plans to extend its broadcasting services to cover the entire nation by the beginning of 21st century. Because of that, the number of the students is expected to grow further. Liberal arts courses are provided in the disciplines of natural science, industrial studies, sociology and so forth. In order to be admitted, one must have a diploma of high school or higher, but special courses are available for those who haven't finished high school so that they can be qualified for admission.

Despite the fact that the current service area is limited, course materials of this university are widely used and studied across the country. Some learning centers outside the service area recommend its textbooks and videotapes of lectures broadcast on TV.

Learning opportunities are provided through broadcasting service in several forms. The first form is the use by groups in the classroom for social education (e.g. classes of education for parents, women's studies, and adult education). The second form is also the use by groups for training in private organizations, including Parent-Teacher Association and private corporations. The third form is free use by small or independent circles and study groups.

Besides the above-mentioned forms, there are many ways to support distance learning, such as correspondence courses for high school-level education via NHK TV and radio programs, Bosei high school of the Tokai University group, courses to teach hobbies such as the game of 'go', and courses to help obtain certificates of calligraphy.

1.4. Electronic Media

1.4.1. Utilization of Information Technology at Home

In the perspective of communication system, we can get some indicators in order to compare different countries from statistics of mail, telephone, facsimile, personal computers. These media are used not only by tools of remote education and learning but also by general information tools of daily communications. A 1993 survey conducted by Ministry of Post office and Telecommunication shows that the average Japanese sent and received 194 during the year(ordinary mail including of letters, postcards and else.) The number of the letter is about 98.

The number of telephone lines was 58.8 million, and users in households of individuals were 40.3 million. The saturation level of telephones, or the number of registered private phones divided by the number of users surveyed was 47.3 %. A recent change worthy of note is the increasing use of portable phones. The number of calls on beepers (pagers) was 8,060,000. The number of registered portable phones and car phones reached 2,130,000 altogether.

One of the services with the latest technology of the age of information, the Integrated Services Digital

Network (ISDN) had attracted235,000 users by 1993 with a popular service called "INS net 64" provided by NTT.

The saturation level of facsimiles in households in Japan as of the time of the survey was 11.6%. The figure was 13.5 % for pagers, and 5% for portable phones. FAX information services supported by some 500 lines are gaining more and more attention, and it was found that27.5 % of its users took advantage of the service to obtain sightseeing information, 16.1 % got information for their everyday lives, and 13.9 % used it for business purposes.

Among people with facsimiles at home, 56% used them for contacting their friends and acquaintance, 45 % for contacting their offices, 42 % for ordering various services, and 36 % for information of meetings and events.

The number of network stations or providers of personal computer communications in Japan as of 1993 was 2,416. The membership was 2.6 million, which is still increasing at an amazing speed. The reason obviously is the recent spread of personal computers (PCs). About 24.3% of the Japanese households are said to have possessed PC(s) back in 1993, and since then the number has kept growing day by day. Asked about the purposes of using PCs, more than 60 % of the users answered "for business," 50% of them used PCs to write letters and papers, and 24 % played computer games.

1.4.2. Installation of Personal Computers in Schools

Looking at the ratio of installation of personal computers (PCs) in public school in 1993, the higher the level of school, the higher the ratio of installation and the average number of machines. 57.7% of the primary schools were found to be equipped with them. The average number of PCs per school was 4.3. As much as 94.7% of junior high schools had PCs, with the average of 19.2 machines per school. 99.7 %or almost all public high schools had PCs, with the average of 46.5 machines per school. MOESC is planning to install PCs in all the public schools by the year 2000, aiming at supplying additional 22 machines for each primary school, so that two pupils will be able to use one machine together. 42 PCs per junior high school are to be installed to make the situation of "one PC per student" possible.

In response to the development of a highly-sophisticated information age, an educational policy of MOESC guides junior high schools to make the most of computers in many aspects of school curricula, by teaching classes of mathematics, science, and "home economics and manual arts," for example.

In an effort to nurture environments for teachers so that they can acquire basic knowledge and skills that the age of information technology requires, MOESC has various training programs available for them, such as classes catering to teachers of home economics and manual arts in junior high and high schools. Since 1995, MOESC has allowed public schools to hire PC experts on a part-time basis to administer classes in which students can fully utilize PCs under the guidance of professionals.

For learners at the high school level and beyond, there are numerous programs available in the areas of computers and information technology in general. The number of such courses offered in high schools in 1993 was 568, and 100,000 students participated in them. 25,000 students took 245 advanced courses at universities, 10,000 students took 104 advanced courses at junior colleges and technical colleges, and833 advanced courses were attended by 60,000 students of vocational schools. Graduate schools of universities also provide high-level training courses to develop experts that can survive the rapidly-changing information age.

2. Information Network as a New Vehicle for Learning

2.1. Learning Resources outside the School and Development of a New Learning System

In-school broadcasting has come to be widely used in all school levels in Japan in the forms of TV, radio, videos and tape recorders. Active use of such media is observed as part of school curricula as effective means of audio-visual education.

Multimedia have been a major focus of attention also in the world of school education. New learning methods utilizing multimedia have been introduced in regular school programs. Especially in primary and secondary schools, many teachers started taking advantage of various types of computer software according to the contents of their classes. Private educational research institutions and business organizations in the information technology industry have developed learning and educational software to meet the needs of teachers. NIER and the Information Research Center for Learning Software have collected and publicized educational software made by school teachers.

The Council for Social Education in National Council of Lifelong Learning presented a report entitled "Development of Audio-Visual Education through the Use of New Educational Media". Meanwhile, MOESC started the program for universal research and development for new educational media. Libraries and museums have higher rates of using electronic information media then other facilities in social education. According to a MOSESC poll in 1995 surveying boards of education belonging to 3,225 cities, towns and villages, 3,115 of the institutions were found to have used magazines for their public relations. Poster and pamphlets were used by 2,865 of them, and counseling via telephone hot-line and interviews were offered by 2,435 of them. About one-third or 1,135 of the municipalities surveyed answered used newspapers and 802 used broadcasting media for their public relations. However, 267 or only a fraction of them put computer databases to a good use.

The number of citizen's public halls, which are major facilities for adult education, reached 17,000 by 1995. Posters and pamphlets were the most frequently used information tools, utilized by 11,037 of the halls. 9,049 of them chose magazines, 8,614 of them went for counseling, while only 2,535 and 1,980 of them used newspapers and broadcasting respectively 7,144 of the municipalities were involved in publishing their own magazines to make their activities known to the public. Here again, the use of computer databases is very limited, with only 406 of the organizations surveyed having the experience.

However, things have started to change in libraries. As of 1995, the number of libraries equipped with computer systems was 1,269, or 58.4 % of the demographics. Many libraries not only use computer systems to check loans and returns of books and management of books, but also open the systems to users for their researches. Yet the situation leaves much to be desired; out of the 2,172 libraries surveyed, only 462 utilized computer databases to provide information services for users; and as many as 1,826 libraries have only magazines issued by municipalities.

Meanwhile, many prefectures have started installing information networks connecting cities, towns, villages, and other organizations and learning facilities, by setting up 'lifelong learning center.'

2.2. Information Networks

Many public facilities managed by departments of local governments other than the boards of education support civic lifelong learning activities. A variety of courses are given in citizen's halls, culture halls, women's halls, and welfare halls. In order to address learning opportunities for the community, systematically integrated facilities to sustain lifelong learning systems and promote lifelong learning activities are most needed.

In a report submitted by the Central Council of Education at the 14th Council in 1990, it was emphasized that lifelong learning centers should be operated as central facilities for lifelong learning promotion in communities. The report stated there were two types of lifelong learning centers: the first is founded by prefectures, and the second is established by universities or junior colleges. The latter serves the purpose of relating to the needs of the community and the role of university extension, and called 'lifelong learning promotion centers.'

Functions of the first type described in the report are as follows :1) to provide services of information on lifelong learning and to help enhance lifelong learning systems for learners2) to research people's needs for learning, to develop appropriate programs and conduct studies on them3) to cooperate with relevant organizations and outsourcing of programs4) to train leaders and advisers who specialize in lifelong learning.5) to evaluate results of learning, and6) to open classes catering specific needs of the community

In addition to the above functions, the report proposed municipality's cooperation with University of the Air, suggesting that public learning centers play the role of learning facilities for the university. More than half of the 47 prefectures in the country have such facilities, and each municipality has a different name for their own learning centers; they are called "Lifelong Education Centers," "Universal Education Centers," "Social Education Centers," etc. The report mentions only prefecture-operated facilities, and does not cover facilities in smaller municipalities.

In fact, such lifelong learning promotion centers have another role to cover wider areas where people have had difficulty finding facilities for social education, because some smaller governments do not own such facilities. However, as the systemization of lifelong learning improves throughout the nation, smaller municipalities such as cities, towns and villages will eventually need full-fledged facilities of that sort.

In present days, many lifelong learning promotion centers organized the National Association for Learning Information, and a national information network connecting prefectures are being established by the association. Also, a plan called "Learning Network" is underway by the National Education Center of the MOESC to establish cooperative relations among universities, national facilities related to lifelong learning, national educational institutions, prefectures, cities, towns and villages.

At the same time, the National Academic Information Center is working as the center of efforts to build academic information network system.

3. The Industrial Society and Local Governments as Structures to Support Lifelong Learning Activities

3.1. Educational Industry

Japan's prosperous private education industry is dominated by two forces: institutions called "juku," or cram schools, to prepare students for school entrance examinations, and private learning centers called "culture centers" for youths and adults alike. According to a1993 MOESC report, the number of businesses offering classes in more than two areas including liberal arts and hobbies is said to be about 600. 156 of them are affiliated organizations of newspaper companies, 148 of them has department stores as their parent companies, and 101 belong to other businesses. The total number of employee in this business is 4,422, that of the lecturers is about 47,000, only 300 of who are full-time lecturers. The total number of classes is about 55,000, attended by some 2 million learners. Subjects most frequently explored are hobbies, with 30,000 courses regarding hobbies. The number of liberal arts courses is 9,900, sports and recreation 8,800, and courses dealing with citizenship and community issues are only 250.

3.2. Learning in Industries

In 1991, The Lifelong Learning Department of NIER of Japan surveyed 313 companies across the nation regarding vocational corporate training with an emphasis on off-the-job training. The survey results show that more than 80 % of employees surveyed were trained in their companies, more than 60 % of them went to seminars and lectures given by private organizations, while 4 % of them also had a chance to go to universities and vocational schools. Many employees expressed their wish to learn about internationalization, Office Automation, and life planning, while the managers gave priorities to different subjects. There seems to be a huge gap between managers who believed productivity preceded over anything, and workers who looked at their professional life in the long run. Also, there are perception gaps between the employees and managers about what to be learned. The employees wished to learn for the sake of themselves or for their personal interests, whereas the managers answered that they wanted their employees to learn something useful for group activities in their companies.

Table 1 Employees' Learning Contents preferred by the Managers

%(N=313)

Training for new employees	98.1
Basic management skills	97.4
Intermediate/advanced management skills	96.5
Company philosophy	94.3
Business	88.5
Basic technical education	87.9
Intermediate/advanced technical education	86.6
Office Automation	84.7
Learning for life planning	80.2
High-tech/new technology	74.8
SE education74.8Internationalization	73.5

Table 2 Learning Contents Desired by Employees

%(N=2042)

Internationalization	71.9
OA education	71.2
Learning for life planning	70.3
Intermediate/advanced management skills	67.3
Company philosophy	62.9
Basic management skills	62.3
High-tech/new technology	55.5
Business	53.1
Basic technical education	51.4
Intermediate/advanced technical education	48.1
SE education	43.8

Many companies provide financial aids for their employees to support self-enlightenment. Often times, information about learning opportunities is provided and suggestions as to which subject to choose are made. Some companies use special consideration for their employees' learning opportunities by offering paid educational leaves. More than 80% of the companies surveyed have been found to offer financial aid such as provision of course fees.

Larger companies tend to support their employees with information and facilities, while smaller companies tend to support them with reducing working time. But very few of those companies, large and small alike, provide educational leave for their associates. And the percentage of companies providing it is less than 30%.

3.3. The "City of Lifelong Learning"

The following is the situation of promotion of lifelong learning in municipalities in Japan as of 1994:1) The majority of the local governments (53 %, 1715 cases) have established a committee for promotion of lifelong learning.2) 28 % of the local governments (903 cases) have a plan to promote

their lifelong learning policy.3) 18 % of the local governments (568 cases) have a department in charge of promoting their lifelong learning policy.4) 61 local governments have declared that lifelong learning is among the most significant goals of the community.5) Taking Yashio city in Saitama prefecture for example, it has a section in charge of lifelong learning promotion under the name of "lifelong learning city." More than 70 programs have been developed by all sections in the government, and in these programs, all of the staff members in the government can work as lecturers who would consult with groups of learners, and would go anywhere in the municipality when asked. Each of the governments that has declared to become a "City of Lifelong Learning" has a variety of projects on the matter.

4. Evaluation Standards for Improvement of Learning Environments

4.1. Open Schools

One of the most important strategies of the lifelong learning promotion policy in Japan is that schools should be open and active, and cooperate to each other for adult education. There are many extension programs available at universities, but we need to open primary and secondary schools to the public and cooperate with other educational resources in the community.

In 1996, the National Council of Lifelong Learning submitted a report entitled "Promotion Strategy for Lifelong Learning in the Community." The report suggests that the first strategy of lifelong learning be to open and extend universities to the community, and that Universities need to provide many opportunities for adult learners.

The second strategy refers to the primary and secondary education. Schools need to make the most of human and educational resources in the community, which support school programs.

The third strategy is to be equipped with facilities for social education, sports and cultural facilities to meet the needs of the people in the community. This strategy helps to establish a better cooperation between social and school education in every resource available, while satisfying the requirements of the times such as use of information technology and diversification and sophistication of learning needs.

The fourth strategy is to use as many institutions as possible for professional research and vocational training.

From such a perspective, we need to have an appropriate indicator to measure openness of school to the community. For example, we can tell how open a school system is by citing the number of extension courses at the initial education level, or the number of classes regarding community issues in regular school curricula or in adult education programs.

4.2. Expanding Information Technology

From the lifelong learning point of view, we need not to define human learning processes in initial education and but to extend the definition to a variety of learning opportunities in human development processes. Specifically, we can now use a large amount of rapidly-developed information and communication media. Though it is true that there is a problem of the definition, we can expand and create our own definition of learning that is suitable to the modern world.

The more important thing than anything else is to plan and develop lifelong learning programs using diversified media. Indeed, mass media such as TV, newspapers and publications provide learning opportunities for a large number of people, and communication media such as telephone and personal computers including Internet communication are shifting the power structure of learning from the limited population to people of all walks of life. There is a big trend which one direct communication like mass media is transforming to interactive communication. This kind of communication is giving us the power of self expression and self realization.

We are coming to the age when we recognize those media can propose learning chances to get some qualifications for jobs and to enjoy to live. Therefore, we need to have indicators to regard with the situation of using a variety of media, of using new learning media.

4.3. Network and Technology

Since the development of lifelong learning promotion policy in the late 1980's, many ideas and programs have emerged in the central and local governments to change learning environments in Japan. Two key words, which are network and technology, help one understand what type of changes the country has gone through.

The word "network" refers to using a network of facilities to improve learners' accessibility to learning opportunities. And as for "Technology," one cannot forget that the development of information technology has brought us communication networks between mass media and mini media, private organizations and public organizations, school education and adult education, etc. These communication networks need to be connected to organization networks at the same time, so that they compliment on each other in terms of their effectiveness. And the development of network systems requires new kinds of technology to deal with the fast-paced society.

In the course of our daily lives, we tend to use the term "technology" in the sense of technology utilizing machinery. However, as this reports suggests, "technology" has other meanings and implications, which we will have to explore in the future: technology to organize things, technology to think, technology to communicate, etc. As we are confronted with emerging problems of the new era, we must put our thoughts together to cope with whatever consequences they might bring about.

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V. Global Indicators Related to Lifelong Learning in Japan

by Miharu Kajita

1. Organization of the Education System

1.1. Initial Education

The present Japanese school system was established in 1947, in accordance with the recommendations of the US Education Commission, soon after the end of World War II. (Figure 1)

It provides for nine years between the ages of 6 and 15 of compulsory education: six years of elementary school and three years of lower secondary school followed by a non-compulsory three-year upper secondary school and four-year college education. This 6-3-3-4 system of formal education has been put into operation for almost half a century with minor modifications of the system in 1962 by introducing a five-year technical college for graduates from lower secondary schools, and special training schools in 1976. For preschool education, there are two kinds of institutions: one is a kindergarten under the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (MESSC), and the other is a day nursery, which is under the Ministry of Health and Welfare.

Schooling for the first nine years is compulsory, and attendance ratio has been almost 100% since the system was introduced. Furthermore, the current ratio of students going on to upper secondary schools is beyond 95%. Thus, the elementary and secondary education in Japan has been universalized.

All students who have completed lower secondary education are entitled to apply for upper secondary schools or colleges of technology. In 1995, 96.5% of the students went on to these schools or colleges. The courses of upper secondary schools can be classified into two: general and specialized. The General Course provides general education for those who intend to advance to higher education as well as those who are going to get employment but have chosen no specific vocational area. The Specialized Course is intended to provide vocational or other specialized education for those students who have chosen a particular vocational area as their future career. It includes courses such as technical, business, agricultural, fishery, domestic arts, and nursing. In 1994, 74% of all students were enrolled in a General Course, while 26% of students were in Specialized Courses, in particular, business, technical, agricultural and fishery courses in order of the number of students enrolled.

1.2. Tertiary Education

Completion of upper secondary schooling and passing through entrance examinations are required for the admission to junior colleges and universities in Japan. Junior colleges offer two- or three-year courses in many, particularly jobs-related fields of study leading to the associated degrees. Universities offer four-year courses in both professional and academic fields of study leading to bachelor's degrees. In addition, there are universities with graduate schools leading to master's and doctorate degrees. The standard duration of a master's program is two years and that of a doctorate program is five years.

Special training schools are institutions different, in terms of legal status, from the schools, colleges and universities so far mentioned. The majority of them offer directly jobs-related practical courses such as computer, foreign languages, cosmetology, hair-dressing, dressmaking and cooking.

1.3. Problems and Prospects of the School Education

The development of upper secondary education in terms of the number of students has been remarkable. Those students who went on to upper secondary schools and colleges of technology increased from 58% in 1960, 82% in 1970, 94% in 1980, 95% in 1990 to 97% in 1994. Against the background of this quantitative expansion, namely the increase in the number of students, there emerged, and continues to do so now, a chain of so-called school-related syndromes such as a high drop-out rate, ochikobore or those students who have fallen seriously behind in their studies, school refusal, bullying and vandalism.

1.3.1. School Refusal

There is a marked increase in the number of students who, whenever they think about going to school, begin to suffer from autonomic ataxia or psychogenic troubles such as headaches, fever, nausea, yawning 'even in the morning', and chronic irascibility and ennui, and are unable to leave home. It has been suggested that these symptoms develop in response to the intensification of such problems as bullying among students, competitive internal and external examinations, and the administrative rigidity over school regulations and school curriculum.

According to an MESSC survey, the number of students who had missed 50 or more days of school for the reason of 'disliking of school life' in 1994 amounted to 12,240 elementary school pupils and 51,365 lower secondary school students. These figures were the highest ever since 1966 when this annual survey first started. School phobia has therefore become an important school issue.

1.3.2. Drop-out

Statistically, drop-out in compulsory education are very small. The reason is that dropping-out is banned by law as a disciplinary measure for students at national and public schools of compulsory education, although private schools may take this measure if they wish. Enrollment of pupils at private schools of compulsory education, however, was the equivalent of only 2.2% of the total number of pupils of compulsory education in 1994. Drop-outs at upper secondary school amounted to 101,194 in 1994, and the figure of drop-out students has continued to vary from 101,200 students to 123,500 students or from 1.9% to 2.2% of the total number of upper secondary school students throughout the country. Regarding reasons for dropping-out, 'finding employment', 'transfer to another school', 'maladjustment to school life' were the major causes reported.

The demanding curriculum, the small amount of remedial attention, and differences in individual ability are also major causes of drop-out. In addition, the lack of individualization of instruction compounds the plight of those with scholastic problem.

1.3.3. Bullying

Bullying or ijime in Japanese has become the subject of serious social concern and widespread coverage in the mass media. Bullying is defined by the MESSC as a 'behavior directed arbitrarily against someone weaker than oneself; a behavior in which physical or psychological attacks are carried out repeatedly, causing deep suffering to the victim'. The problem has been decreasing, but as is shown in Table, it is still rampant, and cannot be easily overlooked. Since 1995 there have been several recorded cases of suicide of secondary school students due to bullying by classmates. The news shocked the public.

Table 1. Bullying in Public Schools

	Elementary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
Total Number of Schools (A)	24390	10568	4163
Total Number of Schools Having Incidents of Bullying (B)	7626	5810	1564
B/A %	31.3	55.0	37.6

Source: The White Paper on Youth for 1995: the Present Situation and Measures for Youth Problems, Prime Minister's Office, Jan. 1996

Since 1986, the incidence of bullying has decreased, but the problem has shifted from overt violence to one of a more psychological nature. The top four bullying behaviors in 1992 were 'verbal abuse', 'ostracizing', 'physical violence', and 'verbal threatening'.

There has been no clear explanation for the frequent occurrence of bullying. A host of combined factors such as the excessive emphasis on entrance examinations, problems resulting from changes in the life and cultural environment of children , the reduction in informal and non-formal educative influences within the family and community are thought to have deprived children of the opportunity to play together in groups, and hence to find outlet for their energy.

There have been repeated calls, particularly at the secondary education level, for diversification, more flexibility and individualization in terms of curriculum, teaching methods, school management, so that these syndromes may be cured. These issues gained renewed attention by the report issued in 1991 by the Central Council for Education entitled "Educational Reforms for the New Era". The Council called for the development of a comprehensive and integrated curriculum that would not be bound by the traditional distinction between the general course and the vocational/specialized course. On the basis of the proposal, several new types of upper secondary schools or courses began to be introduced. A comprehensive school, a credit-based school and a comprehensive course are taking root among them.

In the arena of higher education, the University Council which is also attached to the MESSC submitted a report in 1991 on the improvement of university education. The Council recommended, among others, the diversification of learning opportunities for working people and the acknowledgment of learning acquired in an educational institution other than the university as credit hours. It exemplified the introduction of daytime, evening and weekend courses.

All universities in Japan have been regulated by the Standards for the Establishment of the University issued by the MESSC. In response to the recommendations, the Standards were modified in 1992 to allow individual institutions to be more flexible in such terms as management, curriculum organization, content and method of teaching. Currently, university reforms are being undergone in many institutions throughout the country. It is difficult, therefore, to generalize the situation of reforms in a precise statement. In addition to the examples mentioned above, various arrangements have been introduced to facilitate access by adults to higher education institutions, such as special selection procedure for adult whereby special quotas and examination subjects are set and emphasis is placed on evaluating their experiences in the work place and aspiration for study through short essays and interviews; and accepting transfer students who have finished a junior college program to the third year of an undergraduate program of a 4-year college. Also, the University of the Air founded in 1983 has given more people, particularly, house wives and working people, a university education by making effective use of television and radio programs.

1.4. Adult Education

Adult education is conducted in various public and private facilities and administration of these facilities ranges over several Ministries of the Government. Some examples of major facilities of adult education are as follows: citizen's public halls, libraries, museums, youth houses, women's education centers - these are under the jurisdiction of the MESSC. Since the 1980's facilities carrying the name of lifelong learning center or social education center have increased. Facilities under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Health and Welfare are public health centers, senior citizen's welfare centers, senior citizen's relaxation houses and centers for mothers' and children's health. Facilities under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labor are institutes for vocational training, working youth houses and working women's houses. Facilities under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries are such centers as farm environment improvement centers, agricultural youth training farms, and structural improvement centers.

School- and college-facilities are also used for adult education. 'To open schools to the community' has become one of catchwords in adult education. Local boards of education organize classes or courses for adults on various themes such as general culture, sports, current topics, and computer, while higher education institutions provide for adults both credit and non-credit courses.

Citizen's Public Hall or kominkan in Japanese, first introduced from the US just after World War II, now represents one of the nation's most important social education centers, and approximately 17,500 halls have been established in about 3,300 municipalities throughout the country. The number of citizen's public halls is more than that of lower and upper secondary schools (16,775 in 1993). Almost all halls are public. They were established by the Social Education Law in 1949, and now are core facilities for social education in the community which undertake a variety of educational, cultural and recreational programs adapted to meet the needs of community members. Diverse opportunities are offered within these programs such as courses, classes, lecture series and exhibitions, the lending of books, and sessions for physical training and recreation. These programs are intended to enhance knowledge and skills, increase their health, contribute to their social well-being and foster pride in their community.

Culture Center (carrying the same naming in Japanese too) represents an educational institution for adult by the private sector. The culture center mostly established by newspaper companies, broadcasting companies, department stores and banks aims at profit-making through providing educational services to adults affordable to meet their particular demands for learning. It is, therefore, strategically located in front of or close to the railway terminal in urban centers, with lecturers or demonstrators of high reputation hired as teaching staff. The majority of courses offered are those directly related to a learner's need ranging from literature, languages, art, general culture to artistic as well as practical skills like painting, pottery making. Learners pay relatively high tuition for courses.

2. Lifelong Learning Policies in Japan

2.1. Prologue

Japan is divided into 47 prefectures, and each prefecture consists of municipalities(city, town, village), and there are 3,232 municipalities as of Sep. 1996. Since the end of World War II, in the arena of local administration, the general administration other than education was dealt with by governor's, mayor's or town/village head's office, respectively, while the educational administration was conducted by the prefectural or municipal boards of education. Also after the war, education was classified administratively into two: school education including higher education and social education. Social education covers organized educational activities excluding those conducted in schools as part of the curricula and those in institutions of higher education. It is provided for a variety of people from school youth to senior citizens.

2.2. Development of the Concept of Lifelong Learning

From the latter half of the 1960's to the 1970's, Japan attained remarkable economic development in the world. The recognition of the need for lifelong learning was essentially brought about by the radical changes and trends taking place in society during these periods. These changes can be divided into changes in the work environment, changes in the living environment and trends towards the 'disease of academic background' syndrome.

2.2.1. Changes in the Work Environment

Rising advances in technology, required technological innovation, modifications in job classifications, being forced to abolish existing industrial departments and shift to new ones as a result of defeat in international competitiveness - all these changes created a need for continuing education and training. Japan has been trying to respond to these issues by means of technological innovation, the prevention of unemployment and the effective activation of existing manpower.

2.2.2. Changes in the Living Environment

Due to the extension of people's life expectancy and the reduction in the number of working hours, certain new issues have emerged in relation to the way old age and leisure time are spent. In particular, in the case of women, cuts in house-keeping activities, the reduction in time spent on child-care have meant that they tend to have more leisure time than men. As a result, we are witnessing the enhanced social status of adult women. At the level of local community, the greatest concentration of population in industry has been in large cities, with the reverse trend of population depletion mainly in rural areas. Also, there has been in urban areas an increase in pollution and destruction of natural surroundings. On the other hand, this overcrowding phenomenon combined with the population decrease in certain rural areas, has led to some difficulty in maintaining the social fabric of these communities. In both these cases, a new community structure and the creation of a community spirit have become urgent necessities.

2.2.3. Trends towards the 'Disease of Academic Background' Syndrome

Since the 1970's, the incidences of bullying, drop-out and vandalism has been rampant, but there has been no clear explanation for the frequent occurrence of these school syndromes. A host of combined factors such as the excessive emphasis on entrance examinations, problems resulting from afore-mentioned changes in the life and cultural environment of children, the reduction in informal and non-formal educational influences within the family and community are thought to have contributed to children being deprived of the opportunity to play together in groups, hence resulting in the accumulation of physical and psychological stresses and frustrations within themselves.

Against this background, political and financial circles as well as the education administration began to show a strong interest in lifelong education as if it were a panacea for coping with these changes and trends.

The interest was reflected in three reports in the decade of 1971-1981. One was a report entitled "Social Education in a Rapidly Changing Society", which was presented in 1971 by the Social Education Council. The essence of the report lies in the emphasis on the necessity of examining the social education from the view point of lifelong education.

The second one was a report in 1971 of the Central Council for Education, the highest advisory body to the MESSC, which was entitled "Basic Measures for School Education in the Future"(in short). Since major terms of reference of the Council were school education in coming years, it paid a limited consideration to lifelong education, saying that the trinity of home education, school education and social education should not be thought of as age based but as a simultaneous process with supplemental functions in support of each other.

In 1981, the same council submitted a report with the title of "Lifelong Education". This report should be memorable as it, firstly, used 'lifelong education' as the title of a governmental report for the first time, and, secondly, it proposed to expand the nature and coverage of conventional social education which has been for almost a half century conducted free of charge on the side of learners. Education was, in accordance with the life stage of a person, divided in the report into three: education before adulthood, education in adulthood, and education for senior citizens, and it tried to examine the education given to each life stage from the whole spectrum of human development.

In favor of the benefit principle, the report proposed for the first time to consign some learning into the care of the private sector under the name of the reform of administration, e.g., rationalization, efficiency, reduction of the coverage of administration. The proposal was very much problem-evolving, and there were pros and cons. Lifelong learning was in danger of being understood narrowly as individual activities only by those who liked to do in his/her own way, and only for the sake of him/her.

2.3. The National Council on Education Reform

In the early 1980's when citizens' interest in educational reform was heightening, the Government made educational reform, together with financial and administrative reform of government, one of the three issues of national concern now and for the 21st century.

In August 1984, the Government set up a National Council on Educational Reform, which was an advisory body to the Prime Minister and had a three-year mandate to August 1987. It should be specially pointed out here that this Council was attached to the Prime Minister's Office and not to a role in the MESSC, and it would be presumable that there was a strong enthusiasm by the Government for educational reform and that this Council was much more powerful than the Central Council for Education that was attached to the MESSC.

The Council presented four successive reports during its term. In the four reports, the Council offered a great many recommendations for educational reform. The current educational policies and practices are, as a whole, based on these recommendations. Through its four reports, the Council repeatedly emphasized the necessity of the transition towards a lifelong learning system or structure. The main recommendations offered by the Council are arranged under the following headings:

(a) The fundamental requirements for obtaining an education relevant to the 21st century,
(b) Transition towards a lifelong learning system,
(c) Reform of elementary and secondary education,
(d) Reform of higher education,
(e) The improvement of teacher quality,
(f) Coping with internationalization,
(g) Coping with the information age, and
(h) Examination of educational administration and finance.

In its fourth report, the Council summarized these recommendations into three:

(a) Transition towards a lifelong learning system,
(b) Emphasis on individual traits of students, and
(c) Coping with various changes, including internationalization and information-oriented society.

During the course of the deliberation of the Council, the term 'lifelong education' was gradually displaced by the term 'lifelong learning'. Though both terms are the sides of the same thing, the Council explained that learning for life should be based upon the free will of the learner (Lifelong Learning), and that preparation, arrangement, coordination and supply of the infrastructure for a lifelong learning system should be duties of the government (Lifelong Education).

2.4. Current Policies for Lifelong Learning

Technical measures for implementation of the recommendations offered by the National Council were entrusted again to the MESSC's Central Council for Education. The Central Council elaborated the task, and made a report in 1990 entitled "Development of a Lifelong Learning Structure". Among concrete measures proposed by the Council were a host of measures such as arrangement by the national and local governments of the infrastructure for lifelong learning, e.g., a Lifelong Learning Center in the community, designation of a 'Priority Community for Lifelong Learning Activities' thus stimulating advanced and varied learning opportunities, and support by the national and local governments of educational undertakings conducted by private educational enterprises.

2.4.1. The Lifelong Learning Promotion Law

Concerning the legislation of out-of-school education and training, there is the Social Education Law (1949), the Sports Promotion Law (1961), the Vocational Training Law (1958) and its amendment, the Human Resources Development Promotion Law (1969), the Library Law (1950) , and the Museum Law (1951). These laws each with its separate area of application had been enacted before the 1970's when the concept of lifelong education/learning began to be widely introduced in Japan.

The MESSC introduced a bill before the Diet in order to promote lifelong learning throughout the country. The Diet passed the bill in 1990. The Law concerning the Development of Mechanisms and Measures for Promoting Lifelong Learning or the Lifelong Learning Promotion Law in short is not a fundamental and comprehensive legislation for the promotion of lifelong, but a law to stipulate various measures which can be implemented immediately by the MESSC in concert with other Ministries. In this sense, the Law was expected to perform the leading role in introducing various measures of lifelong learning.

Three major provisions of the Law are as follows:

(1) Roles of the prefectural Boards of Education in the promotion of lifelong learning (Article 3), e.g., collection, arrangement, and provision of information for people in the community concerning learning and cultural opportunities in school education and social education; surveys on learning needs of people in the community;

(2) Roles of the prefectural governments to make the general planning of providing learning and cultural opportunities for people in a district(s) designated by the prefecture by also utilizing the private sector's financial abilities (Article 5); and

(3) Establishment of national and local (prefectural) Lifelong Learning Centers (Article 10).

With the Law coming into existence, basic infrastructures for the promotion of lifelong learning backed by legislation were strengthened at both national and local levels.

According to the Lifelong Learning Promotion Law, the MESSC established a Lifelong Learning Council in 1990. In terms of reference, the Council is to asses and deliberate the matters related to lifelong learning policies concerning school education, social education and cultural activities, and to make recommendations to the Minister of MESSC on the matters that the Council considers necessary. The members are selected from among distinguished scholars, specialists from various fields, appointed by the Minister of MESSC and approved by the Cabinet. The number of the members should be no more than 27.

The Council submitted reports twice: one was in July 1992 with the title of "Measures for the Promotion of Lifelong Learning in Response to Trends in the Emerging Society" in which it offered a basic concept aimed at creating in lifelong learning society, and pointed out the following four tasks to be given particular emphasis at present: (1) promotion of recurrent education, (2) support and promotion of voluntary activities, (3) enrichment of out-of-school activities for youth, and (4) enrichment of learning opportunities concerning current issues. Examples of 'current issues' are Environment, Natural Resources, Health, Population and Food, Human Rights, Aging Society, Gender Equal Participation of Society, Consumption Issues. The other was a report entitled "Measures concerning Enrichment of Lifelong Learning Opportunities in the Community " in April 1996. In the report, each of the four types of facilities, namely, higher education institutions, elementary and secondary schools, facilities of social education, culture and sports, and research institutes of the government and those of companies are scrutinized to heighten the functions of lifelong learning, and to address the problems that these facilities are facing in order to improve the situation.

At the prefectural level, Prefectural Councils on Lifelong Learning stipulated in Article 10 of the Law are also being established. 34 among 47 prefectures have established such Councils as of August 1995.

2.4.2. Direction of Lifelong Learning Policies of the MESSC

Under the banner of a catchphrase "One can freely choose various learning opportunities at any time and at any place throughout one's life, and the outcomes of such learning should receive proper evaluation", the MESSC is making strenuous efforts to spread lifelong learning throughout the nation. Its emphasis is placed on three areas a) stimulation of demands of people for learning, b) provision of diverse learning opportunities, and c) evaluation of skills and learning achievements.

a Stimulation of demands

School education, in accordance with the revised Courses of Study implemented in 1992, emphasizes the nurturing of pupils' willingness to learn independently and the ability to cope positively with social changes, and on fostering self-education as the basis for lifelong learning. Since 1989 in adult education, the MESSC has been jointly sponsoring annual National Lifelong Learning Festivals with local governments and private sectors. These festivals include lifelong learning fairs, seminars and forums. In addition to ensuring the wide dissemination of information, the festivals play an important role in popularizing lifelong learning. 42 prefectural governments organized their own lifelong learning festivals or similar events as of August 1995. It is necessary for adults to have appropriate information about learning opportunities when they intend to learn. The improvement of systems to provide people with learning information and respond to their inquiries about classes and lectures is therefore an important priority. The MESSC is responding to this need by enhancing systems for the provision of learning information and advice. They involve the development of computerized learning information database and networks and the provision of learning information and advise through citizen's public halls and social education centers.

b Providing lifelong learning opportunities

The MESSC and boards of education are working to provide diverse learning opportunities in the fields of school education, social education, culture and sports. The Ministries other than the MESSC also provide a variety of learning opportunities other than those covered by the MESSC that correspond to their respective administrative objectives in such areas as welfare for the aged, rural revitalization, environmental protection, the promotion of local industries, and traffic safety. These Ministries provided 165 different programs in 1994, and 178 in 1995 in total. Here arise problems of the coordination of the programs provided, and those of avoidance of the programs that are similar among the Ministries concerned.

2.4.3. Provision of Diverse Learning Opportunities at Schools

The MOESSC is implementing a number of measures at the school education level to provide diverse learning opportunities. They are (1) the expansion of access to school education; (2) the establishment of new types of schools; and (3) the opening of school functions and facilities to the public.

a. Expanded access to school education

Recent changes have created a growing need for the re-education of adults and workers through recurrent education in schools. There is, therefore, particular need for refresher education, vocation-oriented education provided by higher education institutions for people in the workforce. The following measures are being implemented for this purpose.

Many universities and colleges have special procedures for adults. In 1993, such systems were in operation at 182 universities. A total of 3,665 adults were enrolled.

Many institutions have responded to adults' or worker's time limitations by establishing evening courses and day cum evening courses. The latter enables adults to take lectures both in the daytime and in the evening according to their circumstances. A total of 146,416 students were enrolled in evening courses at 157 universities and junior colleges. In addition, evening courses had also been established at seven graduate schools. Day cum evening courses had been established at 21 universities and 72 graduate schools.

Special register students are part-time students who register for individual subjects or courses. They are eligible for receiving course credits. As of 1993 a total of 2,119 special register students had been accepted at 168 universities.

In 1993, about 230,000 people were enrolled in correspondence education courses offered by 22 universities and junior colleges, including approximately 50,000 enrolled in the University of the Air.

The University Entrance Qualification Test System provides opportunities for university education to certain categories of people, such as those who have dropped out from upper secondary schools or those who have missed upper secondary education. Applicants are tested by the MOESSC, and if they can pass the test, they are qualified for university entrance. A total of 20,569 took the test, and 5,214 passed in 1993.

b. New Type of Schools

The University of the Air uses television and radio broadcasts to provide university education to a wide range of people in Japan. It began to enroll students in 1985. In 1996, a total of students enrolled exceeded 62,000. Since its inception 6,679 students have graduated so far with a BA from the University.

The coverage of the University is currently limited to part of the Kanto region comprising Tokyo, and it is preparing to expand its coverage nationwide through the use of a new broadcasting satellite.

Credit-based upper secondary schools base subject mastery requirements solely on credits. The purpose of the system is to make upper secondary education available to all by providing opportunities to people with varying academic backgrounds and in diverse circumstances. The schools are characterized by special provision regarding selection of entrants and the timing of admission and graduation, the cumulative calculation of credits. The system was introduced in 1988, and there were 126 schools in 1996.

Special training colleges provide practical vocational education, specialized technical education, and other types of education to meet the needs of society. In 1995, a total of 813,000 students were enrolled in 3,476 special training colleges. At its inception in 1975, the special training college was defined as an institute of practical training different from the regular schools such as secondary schools, junior colleges. In the course of time, however, special training colleges have been reformed to be institutes to respond more quickly and flexibly to diverse training and learning needs of industry.

c. Opening to the Community of School Functions and Facilities

In promoting diverse learning activities, it is important to make the functions and facilities of schools available to the public to meet the learning needs of the community people. From this point of view, the MOESSC provides incentives and subsidies to encourage schools and higher education institutions to implement courses and programs for citizens.

Extension courses at universities and junior colleges give the public direct access to the outcomes of higher education and research, and provide community people with opportunities for advanced learning. In 1994, approximately 620,000 people attended a total of 6,190 extension courses at universities and junior colleges. These course cover a wide range of fields, including specialized and technical subjects for workers, contemporary issues such as the environment, international contribution, health, the aging of society, a gender-equal society, etc. and languages and sports.

Under the arrangement of municipal boards of education, many upper secondary schools organized extension courses on various themes for the community people. In 1994, about 30,000 people attended 878 courses.

For many years there has been an active policy of making school facilities available to the community. In 1994, 93.5% of elementary schools, 88.7% of lower secondary schools, and 59.7% of upper secondary schools made their facilities available in some way. Most facilities offered for use are gymnasiums, swimming pools. But other types of facilities such as science rooms, music rooms, libraries are also offered.

The number of surplus classrooms is increasing due to the decline in student numbers caused by the trend of a low birth rate. Utilizing these spaces for learning activities of the community people by converting them into facilities for social education, sports, and cultural activities is important from the viewpoint of promoting lifelong learning at the community level. In this relation, the MOESSC issued in 1993 the Guideline for Surplus Classroom Utilization in order to promote the conversion of surplus classrooms for community use.

Chapter 2

TRANSITION OF THE THAI SOCIETY TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING

by Tippawan Masaeng

INTRODUCTION

Thai society begins in the family. A baby first learns to live from his/her family and later from the neighboring village. This has always been the Thai way of life. However, a very important thing has changed, namely education. The people have started to learn not only from their families, but from the larger society and in the schools. Now formal school education is no longer enough for living. The people need to learn how to live within society. They need to learn how to work and how to live together with others in a rapidly changing world. They need to learn throughout their lives, that is lifelong learning.

1. The Former Thai Education System

The Thai alphabet developed about 700 years ago by King RAMKAMHAENG of the Sukothai Kingdom in 1282, is regarded as an important contribution to the Thai learning system. Before the time of King Chulalongkorn, education had been conducted informally in the palaces, temples and homes of the nobles. At that period of time education was, of course, limited to quite a small segment of Thai society.

It should also be noted that in former days the Buddhist temple played an important role in teaching young people to read, write, and behave morally. It has been the custom of the Thai people that young men should be ordained and stay in the temple for a time during which they study the teaching of Lord Buddha. Knowledge of the written language is therefore needed. They usually started with the Thai scripts, then continued with the Khmer scripts, which in those days were used to record the Buddhist scriptures.

Specialized subjects and skills such as music, drama, medicine, crafts and arms fighting were also imparted through families and private enterprises.

Women were treated differently from men in matters of education. They were trained in cooking, embroidery, homemaking, etc. Those of the noble class also studied literacy and some developed a special interest in it. A few became more advanced and prominent in the field of literature.

Such were examples of informal education as it was conducted in Thailand in the past.

In 1871, King Chulalongkorn of Bangkok established a school in the Grand Palace, which for the first time followed the western model. This school differed substantially from the temple school. A location was specially provided; laymen were recruited to teach according to a fixed schedule. Subjects taught included Thai language, foreign languages and other subjects which had never appeared in the temple school curriculum.

More schools following the western model were established. In 1921, during the reign of King Vajiravudh, the compulsory education act was promulgated, compelling children to attend school. Compulsory education, therefore, has been practised in Thailand for almost 75 years.

In 1954, the government of Thailand, in conjunction with UNESCO, established a center to train fundamental education supervisors to work with the people in rural areas, helping them to understand their own environments and problems, and to know how to utilize local resources to improve their own economic and social conditions. The center was called Thailand - Unesco Fundamental Education Center (TUFEC). The center offered a two-year course leading to a Secondary Teachers' Certificate in Fundamental Education. The center, located in the Northeast of Thailand, was originally designed to serve educators from Thailand, Laos, Kampuchea and Vietnam. Because of the language problem, however, only educators from Thailand and Laos were admitted. It is interesting to note that fundamental education employed a community approach in working with people. Such an approach has not been widely used by educators in the field of adult education.

2. Orientation Towards Lifelong Education

The concept of lifelong education, of which adult education is a major part, gradually evolved. The system of lifelong education, as it has been explained, comprises three types of education, namely : formal education, nonformal education and informal education. Lifelong education can be categorized in terms of activities such as basic education and continuing education.

Adult education or nonformal education, according to this concept, is intended to play an important role in three categories of activities: basic education, skills training and the provision of information services. It provides basic education for those who did not attend school when they were young. Provision of information services such as public libraries, museums, radio, television, etc., enables the people to continue their own search for knowledge and to gather information about contemporary issues. Skills training is provided to complement general education and to aid in increasing one's capacity to earn a living.

3. On the Path to Lifelong Education

The 1977 National Scheme of Education, which has been regarded as one of the most revolutionary schemes of education to date, is based on a few fundamental principles.

@ education is a lifelong process; hence it is not limited in terms of space, time modes of delivery, etc.

@ there should be a close linkage between school education and nonformal education,

@ nonformal education should be given high priority and should be organized in multifarious ways to offer a broader opportunity to learn throughout life,

@ budgets should be increased for every level of education, with a higher proportion for compulsory education and nonformal education. Indeed, the National Scheme of Education resulted from the turmoil of the Thai political and social movement of the 1970's and previous decades.

4. The 1992 National Scheme of Education

In the last twenty years, Thailand has experienced rapid changes due to the advancement of modern technology and communication systems, as well as extensive engagement with the world community. Such changes were too overwhelming for both individuals and society, thus causing imbalances at many levels - between material growth and spiritual development; between exploitation of natural resources resulting in detrimental effects on the environment and conservation; between recognition of modern/exogenous and local, indigenous knowledge and culture; and between dependency and self-reliance both at individual, community, regional and national levels.

The State affirms the fundamental belief that education is a very importance process to enhance individual development and enable the population to cope with future changes. Being aware that the current educational provisions are not sufficiently responsive to the changing needs for individual, community and national development, the State deems it necessary to improve the educational system with respect to principles, goals, policy directives and guidelines in order to ensure that education can help improve the quality of life for the Thai people in a direction appropriate to the changing context of Thai society.

5. The Educational System

The educational system provides opportunities for continuous and lifelong learning via various forms of education, both in a school-related system of education and through learning experienced throughout life.

In order to achieve these principles and goals, the initial policy stated the following objectives:

1. to establish a system of learning networks enabling the population to engage in comprehensive, continuous and lifelong learning.
2. to provide and promote prenatal care, child rearing practices and the necessary education for child development, taking into consideration basic minimum needs as well as the societal need to develop desirable characteristics in children.
3. to promote a minimum of one preparatory year for every child before entering primary school.
4. to ensure comprehensive, quality and convenient compulsory education. Services at the national and local levels must be provided free of charge.
5. to specify the compulsory level in accordance with the law on compulsory education.
6. to designate secondary education as the basic education for all. The state should accelerate and expand a comprehensives basic education for all so as to upgrade the quality of life of the people - "to promote and support the participation of family, community, other social institutions and mass media in the educational process and the conservation and development of natural resources, environment, culture and local wisdom".

In response to the stated 19 policy directives, the following content areas were established:

@ learning network and education for all
@ curriculum content and instructional process
@ teacher and educational personnel
@ administration and management
@ educational resources and investment

6. The Seventh National Education Development Plan (1992 - 1996)

The role of the National Education Commission is to make recommendations to the Cabinet regarding education policies, national education schemes, and five-year development plans in accordance with contextual changes and directions of national development. With regards the Seventh National Education Development Plan, the National Education Commission has cooperated with other related agencies to formulate the plan with due consideration to current problems, situations and changes in the social, economic, political, cultural, environmental, scientific and technological contexts of the country. The policy recommendation under the Seventh National Education Development Plan on Education for All on learning networks is, "to organize a learning network with flexibility, diversity in models and methods, and relevance to the needs of individuals, communities and society so as to strengthen lifelong learning."

7. Development of Nonformal Education in the Context of Lifelong Education

In 1979, the Department of Nonformal Education was set up to carry out the following functions:

1) operation of NFE programs such as literacy, compensatory education for the disadvantaged, short course skills training, reading promotion, educational museums, education through mass media, etc.
2) planning, research, development, training and coordination with other agencies and,
3) subsidizing, promotion and technical services to other nonformal education agencies in connection with training, curriculum development, organizing of seminars and workshops etc.

The department provided both resources and directions for the immediate implementation of NFE programs.

8. Leading Programs and Activities

The leading programs and activities of the Department of Nonformal Education will be :

1. Basic Education.

The category of basic education includes two programs:

1.1 Literacy programs which follow the principles: relevancy, problem-centered curriculum, problem-solving methods of instruction following the KHITPEN model, flexibility, adaptation to cultural realities and needs, and self-reliance.

1.2 Continuing education programs, which help those who have already acquired the first level of basic education. Continuing education is provided to prepare learners for the acquisition of certification within the higher levels of the formal school program. Instruction is offered in three different modes: classroom modes, radio correspondence modes and self-instruction mode.

This category of activities is quickly growing. Its importance has already been underscored by the emerging need of society to provide lifelong education for its members.

2. Provision of information services.

This category is designed to make resources available for school children. and to help out-of-school adults in their search for current knowledge and information. These activities are also experiencing rapid growth for the same reasons motivating the growth of basic education.

3. Skills training.

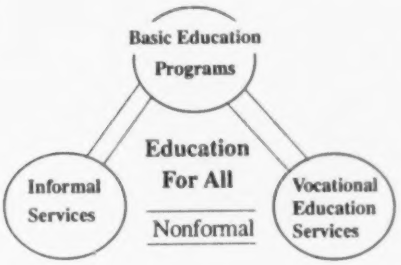
This category includes:

3.1 vocational classes operating in day schools with qualified teaching staff and facilities,

3.2 mobile vocational units, operating in rural areas and,

3.3 interest groups, operating mainly in rural areas.

This can be illustrated by the following diagram:



9. Major Trends in Nonformal Education

Happiness is universally valued as the ultimate goal in life. Happiness, in this respect, is attained when one's self is in harmony with one's environment. Education must ultimately aim to increase the happiness of human beings and help them in their search for harmony. To achieve a state of harmony and to construct alternative courses of action, one should gather the widest possible range of information about technical; social and environment aspects, as well as information about oneself. Finally one will choose the knowledge which best satisfies one's search for harmony and the ultimate goal of happiness.

The above paragraph describes what is known as KHITPEN philosophy. This philosophy was developed to serve as direction for adult education development and has been used in curriculum and materials development, as well as in the development of methodologies regarding teaching, learning, and training. In addition to the Khitpen philosophy, humanistic ideas have generally been recognized and appreciated. For instance, the beliefs that:

1. people are the focus of development,

2. people should be subjects, rather than objects of development,

3. people's participation and self-reliance should be guiding principles for development, and

4. people should strive for their own complete development.

Khitpen methodology has employed numerous approaches and techniques in dealing with target groups, including individual, group and community approaches. Nonformal education must work both independently and cooperatively to motivate other agencies to join in the conducting of programs. It must also work in cooperation with other agencies to ensure integrated development.

There are both problems and successes within the field of nonformal education. Some problems which remain to be solved include the improvement of the quality of teaching-learning processes as a result of inadequate personnel training, etc. Successes include the contribution of nonformal education during the past sixty years to the liberation of the underprivileged masses. This has been accomplished through the elimination of illiteracy, and through the diffusion of knowledge and information to the rural poor, helping them to realize their own individual capacity to grow and to direct their fate. It has also contributed to greater accessibility to continuing education as a vital part of lifelong education within Thai society.

10.Role and Responsibilities of the Department of Nonformal Education.

The Department of Non-Formal Education has the role and responsibility for organizing nonformal education within three principle categories:

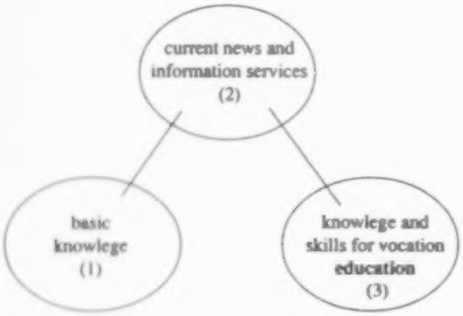
1. Organization of nonformal education activities and/or services, both for people who have missed the chance to pursue learning within the formal education system and for those who are otherwise disadvantaged.

2. The support and encouragement of programs and activities conducted in the formal education sector in order to enable them to achieve curriculum goals and ob-

jectives.

3. The support and encouragement of people in their pursuit of learning within all sectors - in the family, within communities, within the larger society and within the other forms of educational provisions existing in their local environment.

The Department thus provides the out-of-school and underpriviled population with opportunities to study and improve their occupations and living conditions. The primary services offered through nonformal education can be categorized into the three components illustrated in the following diagram:


current news and information services (2)
basic knowlege (1)
knowlege and skills for vocation education (3)

3 components of nonformal education.

10.1. To provide basic knowledge for subsistence.

This aim is to provide the people with the basic knowledge necessary for subsistence, with having the ability to think, to work and to solve problems. They should have an apparatus for earning their living; they should know how to discover various kinds of information to help them make decisions in their daily lives. Activities organized under this category are:

- functional literacy programs.
- education for special target groups.
- elementary education curriculum for hill-tribe inhabitants.
- general nonformal education programs at the primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary levels through the services of a classroom program.
- distance education and self-instruction, etc.
- (See charts no. 1, 2, and 3 on the following pages.).

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CHART 1

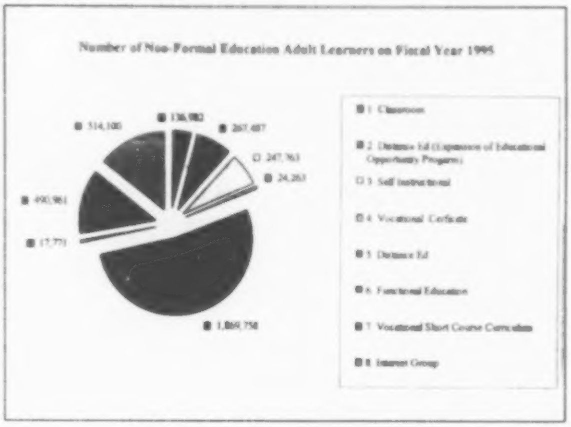


CHART 2

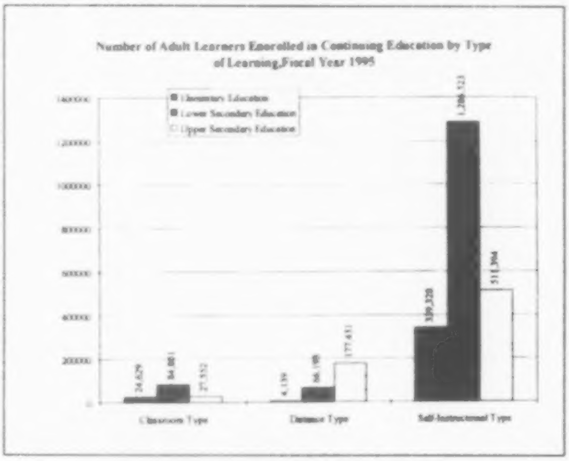
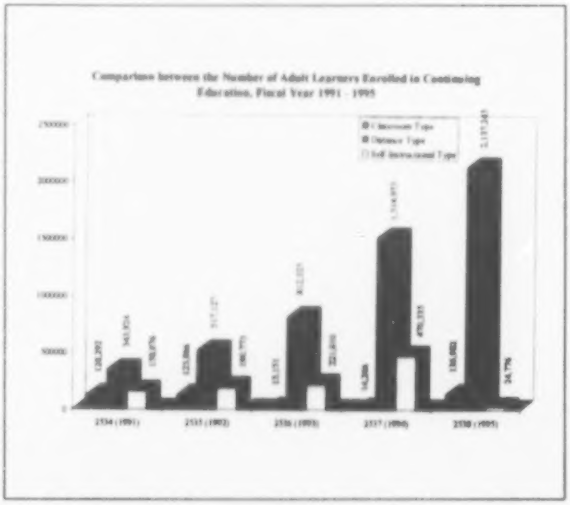


CHART 3



10.2. To provide current news and information relating to current situations.

After being endowed with basic knowledge, it is necessary for people to regularly acquire up-to-date information in order to improve their life condition. Activities which promote reading skills help people access new or recent sources of information; help people acquire a fondness for reading; help prevent literacy relapse and will encourage the ability for self development, resulting in the general development of a higher quality of individuals. The activities conducted in this category cover the following areas of provision:

- village reading centers (knowledge and information sources)
- public libraries
- science museums
- planetariums
- mobile audio visual education
- mobile museums and mobile libraries, etc.

(See charts no. 4, 5, 6 and 7):

CHART 4

Number of Village Reading Centres by Budgetary Source; Type of Printed Materials and Location

Budgetary Source	Type of Printed Materials	Number of village Reading Centres				Total
		Normal Areas		Self Defence Development Areas		
		General Centres	Monastery Owned Reading Centres	General Centres	Monastery Owned Reading Centres	
Organized with Regular Budget	Newspaper	26,255	889	4,772	374	32,290
	Periodical	4,598	260	126	167	5,151
Organized with Funding Grant		1,847	296	36	3	2,181
Sub-Total		32,700	1,445	4,993	544	39,622

CHART 5

Number of Public Libraries, Librarians, Library Officials, Members and Beneficiaries

Type of Libraries	Number of libraries	Number of Librarians	Number of Library Officials	Number of Members	Number of Beneficiaries
Public Libraries					
- Provincial	77	38	90	367,608	4,717,403
- District	594	27	480	761,731	8,907,484
- Sub District	172	-	15	6,650	334,630
Total	**843**	**65**	**585**	**1,135,989**	**13,959,517**

* Provinces with two Public Libraries are Nakhon Sawan , Songkhla

CHART 6

Service Recipients of Educational Science Center

Sections	Number of Service Recipients		Total
	Children/Youth	Adults	
Bangkok-Planetarium	650,050	318,247	968,297
Science Museum	767,000	188,716	955,716
National History Museum	745,000	210,663	955,663
Museum for Youth	-	-	-
Mobile Museum	478,000	91,905	569,905

CHART 7

Types of Service	Unit
1. Public Libraries	Centres
- Provincial Level	77
- District Level	594
- Sub-District Level	172
2. Village Reading Centres	Centres
- General Reading Centres	37,633
- Monastery-Owned Reading Centres	1,989
3. Educational Audio-Visual Services	Times/ Programmes
- Radio Television, Film show, Video and Wire Service	136,379/10,869
- Printed Materials, Exhibition and others	Times/Stories 16,995/142,798
4. Centre for Educational Technology	Programmes
- Provision and Production of Education Video Programmes	-
- Management and Production of Educational Radio Programmes	-
- Provision and Production of Educational Television Programmes	-
5. Service Recipients of Centre for Educational Museum's Activities	3,449,581

10.3. The augmentation of knowledge and skills within vocational education.

To keep up with ongoing social transformations and the accompanying growth of new knowledge and techniques, it is imperative for people to accumulate ever more knowledge and experience in order to improve their occupational careers and to apply this knowledge and skill in new jobs so as to improve their own and their family's livelihood. This type of nonformal education activities deal with:

- interest group learning
- short and longterm vocational training curricula
- training curricula resulting in vocational certificates, as well as training methodologies and the dissemination of vocational knowledge through mass media, namely newspapers, television and video programs etc.

(See table no. 5 and figures no. 4, 5 and 6)

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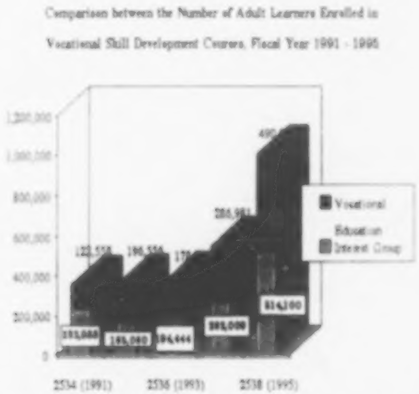
Table 5

Comparison Between the Number of Adult Learners Enrolled in Vocational Skill Development Courses, Fiscal Year 1991 - 1995

Number of Learners Categories of Study	Fiscal Year				
	2534 (1991)	2535 (1992)	2536 (1993)	2537 (1994)	2538 (1995)
Short-Course Vocational Curriculum	122,558	196,556	178,538	286,981	480,961
Interest Group	232,988	165,060	194,444	262,009	514,100
Total	355,546	361,616	372,982	548,990	1,005,061

Figure 4



Comparison between the Number of AdultLearners Enrolled in Vocationaal Skill Development Courses,Fiscal Year 1991-1995

Figure 5

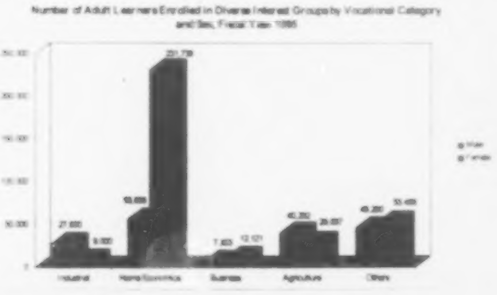
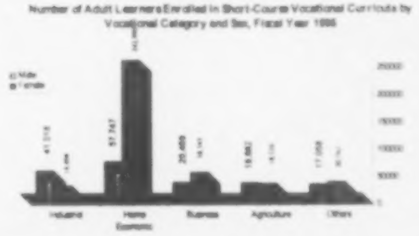


Figure 6



11. The Creation of the Project "A Lifelong Education System at the Village Level in Thailand Through the Development of Community Learning Centers"

Statement of the problem:

In general, education is viewed as the process of learning within a school system. As such, school systems have their own cultures and atmosphere. Learning activities occuring in schools do not necessarily resemble the lives of people outside school. School systems are also designed to address a particular group of children or adolescents, rather than adults and for this reason school is viewed as a once-and-for-all experience. However, once graduated from the school system, people continue acquiring knowledge, both formally and informally throughout their life-span. They seek additional knowledge, information and skills in order to adapt themselves to a rapid changing society. It is a lifelong learning process.

The limitations of the school system have resulted in the rapid growth of a nonformal education system. Learning and training programs, using all kinds of media in nonformal ways, are organized by several agencies - governmental and nongovernmental. Such programs are being widely offered, in order to enable people to closely follow the changes and developments of modern science and technology. The main targets of these programs are those who have been neglected in rural villages. Education available in all areas of daily life, and, in most cases outside of a formal school, is important for the improvement of people's "quality of life". Rural people need this kind of education. They need to have a "source of knowledge" available in an open system at the village level, where people of all ages can acquire knowledge and skills in the different contexts of a broad socio-cultural dimension using several types of media. (Boonlerd Masaeng, A proposal for a lifelong education system at the village level in Thailand, 1987.)

In 1985, attempts to deal with the problem have been made in the northern region of Thailand, including the above mentioned project.

11.1.Guiding principles of the project

A proposal was made to set up a center in the village, a local point of operation called a Village Learning Center (VLC) This center is the main "source of knowledge" for the village with support from:

1) governmental and non-governmental agencies by way of administering the center and supporting the acquisition and development of learning materials

2) an organized book donation system with the purpose of supplying learning materials

3) village graduates of a nonformal, continuing education program who run the center, and

4) the people themselves in organizing and managing the center.

Thus, the efficiency of the center depends directly on the active participation of all these sources of support. Following this, the center has the following principles:

- The VLC is a public service directed by the village.
- The VLC is open to all agencies.
- Qualified, printed materials must be systematically

supplied from the book donation systems at both the provincial and national levels.

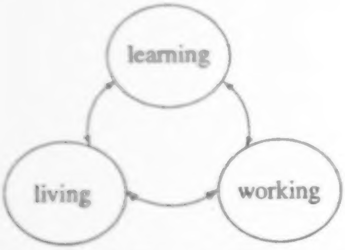
- All students of the NFE continuing education program are required to actively participate in the VLC's activities as a part of the program.
- The VLC is to be organized and run by two committees - executive and operational.

12. Major Actions for the Improvement of a Lifelong Education System at the Village Level

Lifelong education covers all aspects and levels of education. Therefore, all learning materials and programs provided to the village are to be organized into a system and arranged in the VLC. The VLC becomes the local source of knowledge organized in such a way that it is convenient and accessible for use by all people.

More than one hundred centers have been set up, albeit in different ways. For example, some are attached to schools, many to buddhist temples, some to village centers and others have been set up in public places.

All attempts to organize village education programs were assembled to create a system functioning as "the source of knowledge" in the village and the main part of the Lifelong Education System at the Village Level in Thailand. The project was launched in 1985, providing "lifelong education" run by the members of society and therefore transforming that society into a future "learning society." B.Masaeng said that, "learning occurs from living and working for better living and working conditions" - meaning that it is a "learning-by-doing process" and doing" takes place in real life situations. This informal learning process is illustrated in the diagram below*:



*** The diagram of Masaeng's learning process**

12.1.Expectations of the project

Expectations of the project extended over both the short and the longterm as follows:

Short-term expectations

a) Educational processes are more natural and there is a more efficient lifelong education system at the village level.

b) Reading and learning habits are promoted and protect neoliterates from relapsing into illiterates.

c) Local institutions and authorities get closer to local situations.

d) There is a better coordinating system among the five main ministries. (Education, Agriculture, Public Health, Interior and Industry)

e) There will be a better linkage between life and education.

f) People in the village have their own source of knowledge.

g) Attitudes and values of people of different ages are aligned in the same direction.

h) People's participation is more active.

i) People at the village level receive higher quality education opportunities, both with regards relevance and flexibility.

j) People have a chance to willingly help each other, which will develop into the desirable awareness that it is a duty and an honor for everyone to do something good and useful for others and for the public.

12.2.Longterm expectations

a) Education becomes the most important means for the improvement of quality of life.

b) There will be a desirable learning society atmosphere at the village level.

c) All people, urban and rural, are aware that it is a duty and an honor for everyone in the society to do something good and useful for others and for the public.

d) People in the rural area are self-reliant at satisfactory level.

e) Attitudes of the people toward the authorities and government agencies are satisfactorily positive.

f) There will be an efficient coordinating system among the main five ministries at the village level.

g) Developments in other dimensions can be more efficiently accomplished.

h) Communication from the government authorities by different agencies to people at the village level will be more efficient using the CLC.

In 1987, the project, *Lifelong Education System at the Village Level in Thailand* was presented at the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) conference in Hamburg, Germany (2nd - 27th November) and organized in the framework of the project, *Post-Literacy and Continuing Education in Developing Countries in the Perspective of Lifelong Education.*

The Department of Nonformal Education has delivered the project and activities concerning learning centers to every province in Thailand so as to organize lifelong education and educational opportunities for the people in every area. It is the mission and essential role of the Department to assist individuals in the achievement of maximum learning, education, self-reliance, positive work attitudes and community participation and involvement.

Since *the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for all (APPEAL)* was launched in 1987, and following the *World Declaration for All* adopted by the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, 1990) an "expanded vision of basic education" has been proposed, in which basic education includes the following components:

1) Learning begins at birth.

2) The main delivery system for the basic education of children outside the family is primary schooling.

3) The basic learning needs of youth and adults are diverse and should be met through a variety of delivery systems.

4) All available instruments of information, communication, and social action should be used to help convey essential knowledge and to inform and educate people on social issues.

These components should constitute an integrated system which is complementary, mutually reinforcing, and of comparable standards, and should contribute to creating and developing possibilities for lifelong learning. (APPEAL Manual for Planning and Management of Literacy and Continuing Education (AMPM) Volume 1. Unesco, Bangkok, 1994, P.5-6.)

As a member of the Asia and the Pacific Region, Thailand has been working very closely with UNESCO and has realized its roles and responsibilities in serving the educational needs of the out-of-school population and creating development possibilities for lifelong learning. The Department has developed concepts and organizational models for continuing education in the learning centers as an opportunity for lifelong learning for the people.

In 1994, there was a UNESCO meeting of the Technical Working Group on Development of Learning Centers at Pattaya (9th -16th August). The project, "Community Learning Centers as an approach for a Lifelong Education System at the Village Level in Thailand" was again presented by a curriculum development specialist from the NFE Dept. This project continues to illustrate the concept of lifelong learning and of a learning society.

Continuing education is the means by which human resource development can occur, and hence, how socio-economic development can be based on a knowledgeable, skilled and self reliant citizenry (T.M.Sakya.)

As citizens become more aware of the power and significance of education as an agency for improving their lives, they tend to plan longer term learning goals and to "add in" shorter term learning experiences to meet immediate needs. Lifelong planning involving continuous education and training is undertaken by all. *(Appeal Training Materials for Continuing Education Personnel ATLP-CE Volume I. "Continuing Education : New Policies and Directions."* UNESCO, 1993, P.1.)

The Department of Nonformal Education is responsible for supporting lifelong learning and organizing all types of educational programs for every out-of-school population. In particular, the Department is responsible for ensuring that every Thai citizen has access to basic and fundamental education, to a continuing supply of relevant knowledge and information and to opportunities for acquiring necessary life and vocational skills. In the budget year 1994-1995, the Nonformal Education Plan proposed the creation of a learning center in every district of Thailand. According to T.M. Sakya, this year (1996), the Department defined a "learning center" as; "local educational institutions outside the formal system for villages or urban communities, usually managed by the local people and providing:

1) educational resources supporting local development and family oriented learning and
2) information about what, how, where and when individuals can become involved in alternative nonformal approaches to basic education and can engage in various types of continuing education locally.

Currently, there are various types of learning centers in Thailand which cater to lifelong learning. They have an outreach approach, promote community development and are usually managed by the local community. Learning centers also organize programs which are responsive and reflective of the needs and aspirations of the members of the community in which they serve. The Department also develops various types of programs and activities to cover individual needs. Organization, management, changing directions of the centers and linkages with community development activities are reviewed and considered together with relevant networks, development agencies and other groups, so that all citizens can be engaged in learning and take full advantage of opportunities.

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ANNEX

Study For Learning Center Development Project

1. Background and Significance

1.1 The UNESCO Definition of a learning center:

A learning center can be defined in various ways dependent upon the relevant communities, societies, and cultures. But one definition that has been accepted is that a learning center is a place arranged to enable people in the community to seek knowledge by themselves. Many countries all over the word have set up learning centers for their citizens, although these centers may go by different names, with different organization modes, operations, services, and delivery methods. Even within one country, the learning centers can take on many forms. For example, in Thailand learning centers are operated in many ways, namely : village reading centers, village resource centers, quality of life development centers, lifelong education centers, etc.

The UNESCO Center for Asia and the Pacific has placed much importance upon learning centers. It has organized many international meetings so as to arrive at the most agreed upon formats for subsequent applications by various countries.

Subsequently, Unesco has set up 10 functions for a learning center:

1. To serve as a place of learning
2. To serve as a place of education and training
3. To serve as a place for a community's general activities
4. To serve as a place for community development activities
5. To serve as a place for consultation and guidance services
6. To serve as a training center for nonformal education activities
7. To serve as a community's information center
8. To serve as a community information service center
9. To serve as a lifelong education promotion center
10. To serve as an education center for future visions

1.2 "Learning Centers" as operated by the Department of Nonformal Education.

Adapting to the 10 general functions adopted by Unesco, the Department of Nonformal Education has set up an activities framework considered suitable to Thailand. The following are the activities so deemed appropriate to be carried out by a learning center:

1. Containing a variety of newspapers on a regular basis.
2. Containing books, journals, and documents on different occupations, and useful information for raising life quality suitable to the size of community.
3. Containing books, texts, guidebooks, programmed materials, and supplementary materials for nonformal education learners in primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary classes, as well as in every mode of learning.
4. Containing other kinds of materials as appropriate, such as radio receivers, tape recorders, televisions, video machines, and other kinds of arrangements such as exhibitions and demonstrations.
5. Organization of nonformal education activities, such as general study group meetings, interestgroup activities, various vocational education programs, pre-school education, literacy development, senior citizens' programs, programs for handicapped populations,
6. Organization of community activities, such as meetings, community development, cultural shows, ceremonial performances, games and sports, and contests Others.

2. Educational Purposes

It is the stated policy of the Department of Nonformal Education to speed up the process of developing a higher quality of life for citizens so that they can achieve a happy life in a rapidly changing environment. One way to accomplish this, is to establish learning centers in various communities where the people can pursue the education that is suitable to their needs, be it general, vocational or informal education. This education would cater to the needs of all target groups and communities across the country.

To help realize the policy of the Department of Nonformal Education regarding learning centers, the study of the operational conditions of learning centers is therefore proposed to beundertaken for the following purposes:

1. To secure informantion on the operations of learning centers in terms of types of activities and types of responsible agents

2. To secure the information needed for orderly planning, supervision, and follow©up of learning centers.

3. Calendar of Events

1. The Department of Nonformal Education dispatches the questionnaires to the provincial Nonformal Education Centers by January 1996.

2. **Provincial Nonformal Education Centers return the questionnaires to the dispatcher by the end of February 1996.**
3. The Department of Nonformal Education analyzes the returned questionnaires (the data) and makes a conclusionon the'conditions of learning centers under the management of the Department of Nonformal Education in order to support plans and projects for improving learning centers. This is to be done by March 1996.
4. Support of the development efforts of learning centers by various agencies, both in the central region and in the provinces, with the ultimate goal of realizing ideal formats for learning centers as advocated by UNESCO and adapted to local conclusions.
5. To seek the best operational model allowing for maximum local participation.Δ(#
6. To inform provincial and district nonformal education centers about the operational procedures for developing a learning center as required by the policy of the Department of Nonformal Education.
7. Submit the report on the operation of the learning centers of Thailand to UNESCO by April 1996.

4. The Responsible Individual

Ms. Tippawan MASAENG
Senior Supervisor
Supervisory Unit.
Department of Nonformal Education
Ministry of Education, Thailand.

Directions for the Data Collection Procedures on the Learning Center Development Project

At the end of the 1995 Supervisory Unit, Mrs. T. Masaeng launched "A Study for the Learning Center Development Project" with the following purposes:
1. To secure information on the operation of learning centers in terms of types of activities and types of responsible agents.
2. To secure information needed for planning, supervision and follow-up of learning centers in order to support the development efforts of learning centers by various agencies, both in the central regions and in the provinces. The ultimate goal is to realize ideal formats of learning centers as advocated by UNESCO with suitable adaptation to local couditions.
3. To seek the best operational model allowing for maximum local paticipation .
4. To establish operational uniformity of provincial and district nonformal education centers as required by the policy of the Department of Nonformal Education.

The study of the project has found that:
1)there are 25,597 learning centers in all parts of the regions (See table on the following page);

Total / Region	Total Provinces	District	Subdistrict	Village	Learning center	Percentage of the total village
Northern	16	168	1,453	13,104	6,058	46.23
central	17	132	1,355	10,824	2,373	21.92
Northeast	19	286	2,611	27,695	11,772	42.51
Eastern	9	68	567	4,816	1,588	32.97
Southern	14	140	1,026	7,486	3,806	50.84
total	75	794	7,012	63,925	25,597	40.40

2)comparison of learning centers in every region of Thailand covering 5 activities(See table below);

Types of activities and total percent / ares	Types of activities: containing 2 newspaper each day		containing books, texts, guide books, program matreial for NEF students		containing of appropriate electronics		organization NEF activities for target-groups in the community		coordination effort which various networks in the community		total learning centers
	total	%	total	%	total	%	total	%	total	%	
Northern	5,666	93.53	914	15.09	349	5.76	1,169	19.3	427	7.05	6,058
Central	2,121	89.38	634	26.72	207	8.72	857	36.11	324	13.65	2,373
Northeast	10,830	91.77	1,758	14.93	547	4.65	3,002	25.5	689	5.85	11,772
Eastern	1,381	86.96	417	26.26	113	7.12	435	27.39	109	6.86	1,588
Southern	3,452	90.7	748	19.65	307	8.07	1,390	36.52	477	12.53	3,806
Total	23,423	91.51	4,471	17.47	1,523	5.96	6,853	26.77	2,026	7.91	25,597

Total Learning Centers organized by 10 responsible agents (See table below);

Quantity / Type of Responsibleagents	Total	percent of the total
Vikkage Reading Center Committee(VRCC)	13,248	51.76
VRCC and Village volunteer(VV)	2,707	10.58
VRCCand a person assigned by local learners	3,747	14.62
VRCC and Village committee(VC)	615	2 .4
VRCCand NEF learners 2 NEF teachers	809	3.16
Village Volunteer	657	2.57
A person assigned by local leader	1,733	6.77
Village Committee	129	0.5
NEF learners/ teadhers	1,326	5.18
Local Learning Center worker	630	2.46
Total	25,597	100

Total Learning Centers organized by 10 responsible agents according to 3 types of quality;

Type of Quality Responsible agent	very satisfactory		satisfactory		needs improvement		Total
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	
1. Village Reading Center Committe (VRCC)	1,154	8.71	7,677	57.95	4,417	33.34	13,248
2. VRCC and Village Volunteer	588	21.72	1,531	56.56	588	21.72	2,707
3VRCC and a person a person assigned by local leader	777	20.76	2,183	58.32	783	20.92	3,743
4. VRCC and Village Committee	146	23.74	346	56.26	123	20	615
5. VRCC and NEF lear ners NFE teachers	202	24.97	459	56.74	148	18.29	809
6. Village Volunteer	59	8.98	248	37.75	350	53.27	657
7. A person assigned by local leader	136	7.85	854	49.28	743	42.87	1,733
8. Village Committee	18	13.95	81	62.79	33	25.58	129
9. NEF learners/NEF teachers	543	40.95	615	46.38	168	12.67	1,326
10. Local learning center worker	220	34.92	293	46.51	117	18.57	630
Total	3,843	15.01	14,287	55.82	7470	29.18	25,597

5. Standards for Collection

In collecting the data for learning center development, the researchers are to folow the following standards:

1. Focusing the study only on learning centers operated by the Department of Nonformal Education.
2. Learning Centers under this study are taken to include any nonformal education activities which resemble village reading centers, village resources centers, life quality development centers, lifelong education centers, and other activities already existent within the community.
3. The Provincial Nonformal Education Center / The District Nonformal Education Service Center are charged with the responsibility of collecting the data on learning center development to be submitted to the Department of Nonformal Education.
4. To evaluate whether or not a learning center holds the type of activities meeting the accepted criteria, the consistency of that activity should be taken into consideration. In an undecided case, the district center and concerned authorities will have the responsibility for evaluation.

6. Method of Entering Data

The survey will be conducted using the following procedures:

1. The Provincial Nonformal Education Center / The District
2. Nonformal Education Resource Center will use the questionnaires received from Department of Nonformal Education to collect the data, and will return the questionnaires to the sender.
3. For each district, sub©district collections of data will provide village lists.
4. Determine if a village operates a learning center. If it does, then follow these steps:

a. Determine the type(s) of activities being carried out by the learning center using the categories provided by the Department of Nonformal Education. Then enter the number (1-7) representing each activity in the "Type of Activities" column.
b. Determine the type(s) of "responsible agents" and then enter the number(s) (1-7) representing each "responsible agent" in the "Type(s) of Responsible Agent" column. In the case of number seven (7) being chosen, the type of agent must be given.
c. The person providing the data on the quality of the learning center's operation enters either 1 (for very satisfactory); 2 (for satisfactory); or 3 (for needs improvement) in the "Type(s) of quality" column.

4. "Sample" of a completed questionnaire undertaken by (name of district), District Nonformal Education Resource Center, (name of province).

Chapter 3

AUSTRALIA'S PROGRESS TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING[1]

by PHILIP C. CANDY AND R. GAY CREBERT

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[1] This paper was prepared shortly after the election of a new conservative Federal Government in Australia. In its first major budgetary statement, in August 1996, the new Government immediately implemented wide-ranging policy changes to education and training, many of which are expected to alter the learning landscape in Australia. However, as at the date of writing, it is too early to determine whether, on balance, these changes are likely to be beneficial or deleterious to Australia's commitment and progress towards lifelong learning.

Education commences when the child first looks upon its mother's face, and ceases when the eyelids are closed forever. Education goes on every day from the cradle to the grave, under all circumstances, in all societies, at home and abroad.

Sir Henry Parkes, 1870

Introduction and Background

Australia's formal education system operates on five levels: early childhood (pre-schools and kindergartens), primary and secondary level schools, vocational and further education, and higher education. In addition, there is an extensive but largely uncoordinated adult and community education sector which includes a diverse range of (mainly voluntary, and often community-based) providers.

Attendance at school is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 15 (Year 10) in most States; education occurring after Year 10 is generally referred to as 'postcompulsory,' a term that includes not only Years 11 and 12 of secondary school (which offer vocational as well as academic options), but also the technical and further education system, and the universities both public and private.

Governments of the six Australian states are responsible for funding and administering their own education systems to tertiary level, where the Commonwealth Government assumes responsibility for funding and plays a major role in administering the 36 public universities within the Unified National System. A national summary of participation in education in Australia is given in Appendix 1 and an explanation of terminology used to describe the sector in Appendix 2.

One of the distinctive features which has shaped Australia's culture, and has certainly influenced its educational provision is the sheer size of the country. Australia's total land area is 7,682,300 square kilometres, approximately the same size as the continental United States, or 32 times the size of the United Kingdom (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 3). Although it is one of the most densely urbanised countries in the world, with 63% of its total population of 18,054,000 people (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 2) living in urban areas, particularly capital cities, the remaining 37% live either in regional centres or rural areas, often hundreds of kilometres from the nearest township with educational facilities. Thus, what has been called 'the tyranny of distance' (Blainey, 1974) often poses both a physical and psychological barrier to participation in formal education, and represents a significant issue underlying government education policy in Australia.

In recent years, lifelong learning has become firmly entrenched in the rhetoric of all levels of formal education in Australia. However, to date, there has been no formal government policy on lifelong learning; rather, support for the concept and its implementation in the education system has appeared piecemeal in various reviews, commissioned reports, papers and press releases. Wherever appropriate, these various sources are referred to in the sections that follow. It would appear, however, that commitment to the concept of lifelong learning does have a practical as well as a hypothetical dimension to it. Over the past two or three years, there has been evidence of strengthening "vertical linkages" (Candy & Crebert, 1991, p. 10) between primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education in Australia, with a more coherently articulated commitment to the principles and goals of lifelong learning. This is perhaps most noticeable within the vocational sector, where the concept of 'continuous skill formation' is replacing the former division between formal education in colleges and institutes, and nonformal training in the workplace.

Although this paper maintains the break between the formal and nonformal sectors, in fact they are probably closer now than at any time since the mid-nineteenth century. "Pathways" initiatives, for instance, have been implemented to free up access to and transfer across sectors (especially between the vocational education and training sector and higher education), and credit transfer and recognition of prior learning are now common practice in most universities. A recent study (Marginson, Pascoe & Golding, 1996) found that there is greatly increased movement from universities to the technical and further education (TAFE) sector, with university students and graduates often keen to acquire job-specific skills and qualifications in fields of study which may be related to, or quite different from, their university studies.

1. The Formal Education Sector

1.1.Early childhood education

In most Australian states, a range of formal educational opportunities exists for all children aged between three and five years, regardless of their ability, sex, family income, cultural background, or physical location. These include state and privately run preschools attached to primary schools; kindergartens and preschools affiliated with the community-based Créche and Kindergarten Association; private kindergartens; as well as community child care centres. Most offer a range of 'free play' as well as more structured creative learning activities designed to foster the child's emotional and social development (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 307).

In 1993 some 182,269 children (Appendix 3) were enrolled in government or privately funded pre-schools or kindergartens in metropolitan and regional areas (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 310). Children living in isolated areas, detention centres, or travelling in Australia or overseas can participate in pre-school programs delivered by Distance Education Centres or Schools of the Air.

Although it is well documented (Butler, 1989; Clay, 1991; Raban, 1984) that the 'habits of a lifetime' in relation to family values, literacy and the love of learning are established in the early childhood years, in particular before the child joins a pre-school or kindergarten at age three, "much still has to be learned about the influence that the home has on schooling" (Cairney, 1996, p. 25). While there is recognition of the crucial role played by these formative years in the continuum of learning throughout life, there is little in the documentation provided by early childhood educators to suggest that this sector views itself as pivotal in supporting lifelong learning. A recent report voiced concern that:

> Australian governments need to find ways of additionally supporting the efforts of parents, families, homecare providers and pre-school teachers whose 'early intervention' plays such a fundamental, if relatively less visible or even ignored, role in the child's acquisition of literacy. (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1995a, p. 31)

As Cairney expresses it, "parents [and schools] must be viewed as equal partners, and there must be a reciprocal relationship...we need to go beyond token involvement and recognise the vital role that parents play in education" (1996, p. 35).

1.2. Primary and Secondary Schooling.

Australia's school sector is divided into levels: primary (from elementary or pre-primary year to Years 6 or 7) and secondary (Years 7 or 8 to 12). The system further subdivides into the state-run or public schools, a range of private - often denominational - schools, and a parallel Catholic system.

With respect to publicly-funded primary and secondary schooling, the States provide approximately 90% of funding and the Commonwealth contributes the remaining 10%. In 1993, 72% of all students at primary and secondary schools attended government schools and 28% attended non-government schools (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 307). Most primary school students (75%) attend State-run schools, with 25% of students enrolled in Catholic and independent schools. At secondary level, there is a slight shift away from the public system; in 1993, students at Catholic and independent schools represented 32% of total enrolments. In most States, the final two years of secondary schooling are integrated within high schools; however, in Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory, senior students attend "secondary colleges," separate entities which aim to prepare students for adulthood. Entry to university is generally on the basis of achievement in the Year 12 certificate, although most universities now accredit prior learning in the workplace or through life experience.

Children in remote areas receive much of their education through correspondence courses delivered through Distance Education Centres and Schools of the Air. These centres use radio, television, electronic interactive learning technologies, telephone conferences, camps and teacher visits (Education Department of Western Australia, 1995b, p. 8). Schemes such as AUSTUDY, which in 1993 provided financial assistance for 469,000 secondary school and university students from low income families, the Assistance for Isolated Children Scheme which supported 12,916 students in isolated areas, and ABSTUDY which assisted 42,300 Aboriginal school children and university students (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, pp. 329-330) have done much to redress the imbalance in learning opportunities between metropolitan and regional areas. However, despite the steady increase in the overall retention rate of Year 12 students in remote locations, it is still well below the national average which has risen from 46% in 1985 to 72% in 1995 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 79).[2]

Government assistance is also available for schools and students in remote areas to establish technology infrastructures. In Western Australia, for example, the 'Flexibility in Schooling' project has had a major impact on staff recruitment and roles, team teaching and flexible timetabling, while an extensive upgrading of open learning provisions has widened student access to "telematics" teaching and learning systems. In addition, the Westlink narrowcast service has been extended "to any site with a 'dish' for the reception of satellite transmissions and a signal decoder" (Education Department of Western Australia, 1995c, p. 67).

Traditionally, the Australian States have had control of their own school curricula, with significant variations occurring according to the special needs of the local community and the geographic location of the school. Thus, there is as yet no common national curriculum in Australian schools, although the move towards this goal began in 1989, when the Curriculum Corporation, an independent company owned jointly by the Commonwealth and States, was established to develop a collaborative approach to curriculum design. Despite the adoption at Federal level in 1992 of the National Goals of Schooling (Appendix 4) - one of which is to "provide a foundation for further education and training, in terms of knowledge and skills, respect for learning and positive attitudes for long-life [sic] education" - progress towards implementation of a national curriculum has been slow. In particular, the continuing emphasis on retaining individual content-based subject areas has been criticised for its failure to encourage "young people to develop global perspectives on environmental protection, racism, social conflict and responsibility and to understand the interrelationship of such subjects as science and geography and the uses of language across the curriculum" (Allen, 1993, p. 7). However, recent trends suggest that assessment frameworks in literacy and numeracy are evidence of a more consistent approach to curriculum across all States and Territories.[3]

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[2] Coalition budget cuts to AUSTUDY will mean a reduction of 0.9% in 1996-97 to a figure of $1.7 million. Funding to ABSTUDY will continue to increase, rising 5.1% in 1996-97 to $189.1 million (Juddery, 1996, p. 1).

Within the school sector, the debate on the importance of lifelong learning, not only for students but for teachers in their own professional development, has been accelerating rapidly during the past few years. The need for the acquisition of generic, lifelong learning skills, including social responsibility and citizenship, is now routinely embedded in curriculum reviews and documentation. The Northern Territory's Common Curriculum Statement, for example, affirms in its opening lines a commitment to lifelong learning:

> The school curriculum must contribute to the lifelong education of individuals and societies. Its aim must be to give school students the maximum opportunity to develop themselves intellectually, socially and physically and to develop their capacity to reflect on the past in order to make meaning of their present, and to be prepared to contribute thoughtfully and knowledgeably to the task of shaping their future and the future of the society in which they live. Each subject studied in school must contribute directly or indirectly to these aims; further, all teachers have a responsibility to help students to acquire the essential skills and competencies to enable them to play a positive and productive role in society (Northern Territory Board of Studies, 1993, p. 1).

In other States, a commitment to lifelong learning is also implicit in objectives in strategic plans. For example, the Education Department of Western Australia lists as Objective No. 1 the need "to provide learning programs that will equip students with the skills necessary to succeed in a constantly changing social and economic environment" (Education Department of Western Australia, 1995a, p. 4). Queensland and South Australia have both recently undertaken comprehensive reviews of the school curriculum.

In Queensland, the report Shaping theFuture included in its Charter of Values "a commitment to: curiosity and questioning insight; logical, critical and reflective thinking; intuition and creativity; the search for truth; a variety of ways of knowing and of learning; the importance of lifelong learning" (Wiltshire, 1994, p. 17, emphasis added). Further, the report recommended that: "The new syllabuses recognise that learning requires the active engagement of the learner in the learning process - the importance of learning how to learn in lifelong learning" (Rec. 4.4). The relatively slow progress in implementing the report's recommendations, however, challenges government's commitment to the practical implications of lifelong learning.

The South Australian education system is also currently undergoing a major review entitled Creating Our Future: Towards a Charter 1996-2010. Recognising in its Priorities 1996 poster that "early learning is the foundation for life-long learning," the Department for Education and Children's Services has based its planning on long-term goals such as: an equity strategy for access; a comprehensive information system; flexible operating hours in schools; teacher competence in a language other than English; identification of 'at-risk' students; nationally accredited pathways between all education sectors and the workforce; a sense of social responsibility; learning how to learn; and the ethical use of information (Department for Education and Children's Services, 1995a, p. 19). The resulting changes to the educational system will mean greater flexibility in the system itself - as well as in timetabling, student grouping, teaching methods, assessment practices, delivery sites and staff organisation - all of which are, potentially at least, supportive of a system of lifelong education

However, in spite of these positive developments, increased competition for university places since 1988 and the resulting emphasis within schools on achieving high tertiary entrance scores, coupled with pressures on young people to choose their areas of specialisation at an increasingly early age, have militated against a clearly defined focus on lifelong learning in the formal education sector. A recent OECD report, Measuring What People Know (OECD, 1996), "questioned the traditional reliance on Year 12 scores and university degrees to measure knowledge by highlighting Australia's vocational education and training system as an example of how such assessment can be expanded to include a range of abilities" (Jones, 1996, p. 9). There has been a growing recognition of the problems such ambivalence creates. For instance, the former National Board of Employment, Education and Training, which until recently advised the Commonwealth Minister on policy in the sector, in 1996 argued that:

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[3] The new government has announced that $40 million over four years has been allocated to the national literacy and numeracy project in the August 1996 budget. $56.7 million has been allocated to Asian languages; $187 million to vocational education in schools (Lamperd, 1996, p. 27); and an additional $17 million to fund civics education in schools (Armitage, 1996, p. 24).

> the emphasis on the scaling practices associated with tertiary entrance selection may affect student choices regarding further education and training and their attitude to learning for its own sake. (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 10).

The same report acknowledged that a more holistic approach to vocational education and training and a greater emphasis on the development of generic attributes would benefit not only the national economy but the individuals who contribute to it. Communication and interpersonal skills, problem-solving abilities, teamwork, and higher order thinking skills, are issues central not only to lifelong learning, but to the debate currently taking place across all sectors about competency-based education and training. Even the Employment and Skills Formation Council, often accused of being excessively instrumental in its focus,

> is concerned that vocational education and training curricula may continue to lack the appropriate degree of generic, broad-based vocational and key competencies. It believes that generic skills are the competencies which are most transferable, are of significant value to the learner as a foundation for further learning and of benefit to the employer as important skill components of the production and service processes. (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 11)

Stronger vertical, and horizontal linkages between the school sector, other providers of postcompulsory education and the workplace are now being advocated as part of the move towards a broader curriculum and the preparation of young people for lifelong learning. South Australian initiatives, for example, support the articulation of secondary students into:

> a range of supportive and collaborative learning environments in classrooms, the community, workplaces and through links with industry, TAFE institutes, private providers and possibly universities. To ensure that the purposes of the senior years of schooling are met, schools will need to foster inclusive and supportive learning environments and productive partnerships with a range of education and training providers. Senior students must have access to and participate in workplace learning and learn through technology. (Department for Education and Children's Services, 1996c, p. 5).

1.3. Vocational education and training.

In recent years the vocational education and training sector has attracted far greater numbers of students than the higher education sector. For instance, in 1992, 1,743,943 students were enrolled in vocational education and training courses at TAFE (Technical and Further Education) Institutes (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 316 - Appendix 5), whereas 559,365 students attended universities (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 318 - Appendix 6). In 1995, 604,000 students were enrolled at universities (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 73), but as at the time of writing, figures for TAFE enrolments were not available (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 72).

In 1994, the then Labor government announced in its White Paper on Employment and Growth an additional allocation to the sector of $A800 million (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 212); collectively, State and Commonwealth funding for public institutes of technical and further education and private colleges of vocational education and training has now increased to $A2,700 million (i.e., $2.7 billion) annually (Moodie, 1996, p. 41). Funding increases have been directly linked to industry's needs, and consequently, postcompulsory education has been seen as "a national economic resource" (Mahoney, 1994, p. 124). However, the 1996 budget introduced a progressive reduction in government funding to 0.8% growth by 1999-2000 (Juddery, 1996, p. 1).

The vocational education and training system is coordinated by the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA), established in 1992 to oversee the implementation of the 1990 Training Reform Agenda as part of the move to make the vocational education system "more responsive to industry's needs" (Department of Employment, Education and Training, 1993a, p. 228). Currently ANTA's role is under review by the new Coalition Government, and recent policy announcements indicate increased autonomy and decentralisation in the TAFE sector as it competes in a more open market and faces budget cuts (Carbon, 1996, p. 1). Until 1996, ANTA advised the Ministerial Council on matters of national policy, priorities and strategic directions; implemented a national vocational education and training system with agreed goals and priorities; established close links with industry; and administered the national (competency-based) curriculum in vocational colleges.

In the years since its establishment, ANTA has drawn considerable criticism from certain quarters, largely because it seems to view the vocational education and training sector more in terms of its contribution to national recovery, through a highly-skilled and productive workforce, than as a potential means for individual development and fulfilment. A recent newspaper article, for instance, claimed that it had been unwilling to recognise what has been called "the traditional social and community role of training," and went on to note;

> It was not until two years after its formation that

> ANTA developed a national access and equity planning model to promote the participation of women, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people and others. Poor delivery of training to regional Australia has been criticised by the states. Others have criticised ANTA's disinterest [sic] in adult education. (Kell & Anderson, 1996, p. 8)

This somewhat utilitarian perspective is further borne out by the catch-cry, "constantly learning while working" (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1994d), which has permeated government policies and initiatives, and which is firmly entrenched in the documentation of the sector. In the 1995 Yearbook of Australia, for instance, although reference is made to the notion of 'life-long learning,' this turns out to mean the development of a "training culture" which recognises "the importance of vocational education and training for the efficiency and productivity of the Australian economy" (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 202).

It was not always like this, however. The first national study of the vocational education sector, TAFE in Australia: Report on Needs in Technical and Further Education (Kangan, 1974), presented a much broader vision for the sector and placed equal importance on the provision of courses and programs for leisure and self-improvement as well as for employment needs. Subsequent reports have focussed more on meeting the needs of school leavers for further education, and less on fulfilling the needs of adult learners whether in or out of the workforce. The warnings sounded by Butler seven years ago are still relevant today:

> Some educationists are concerned that the original concept of lifelong education as a means of achieving personal fulfilment is being lost to a very narrow view of education which over-emphasises its vocational aspects. There is also anxiety in the community services sector about the possibility that any new arrangements designed to continuously upgrade the skills of the workforce may doubly disadvantage those excluded from it (the unemployed, older people, women caring for dependent children and relatives, and many disabled people) by re-allocating education and training resources in favour of those who are employed, hence making it even more difficult for those disadvantaged groups to gain access to either education or employment. (Butler, 1989, p. 8)

Increased government funding and consequent growth in student numbers in the sector, together with increased public and private expenditure on formal training initiatives for employees (Appendix 7) have led to numerous initiatives to increase the number of people engaged in training programs to make Australia more internationally competitive in its manufacturing and service industries (Appendices 8, 9 and 10). Among them are the training programs funded by the former government for apprentices; traineeships; the Special Trade Training Program; the Skills Enhancement Scheme; the National Skills Shortages Program; assistance to industry to implement training programs for employees; the establishment of Industry Training Advisory Bodies and the National Training Board; workplace literacy programs; the Training Guarantee Act which, when in operation between 1990 and 1994, required employers to spend a proportion of their payroll on training programs; employment access programs; the Aboriginal Employment Development Policy and the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission; community-based employment and training strategies; the Disadvantaged Young People Services Program; and the New Enterprise Incentive Scheme (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, pp. 202-212).

Many of these labour-market programs have, however, been discontinued by the incoming Coalition Government, which has introduced its own Modern Apprenticeship and Traineeship System (MAATS) - a $207 million school-to-work program designed to help students combine their secondary school certificate with practical work skills. The scheme will also fund work placement coordinators to find training places for students. This scheme is expected to lead to a 30% increase in students remaining at school to complete Year 12. Students will be able to negotiate the proportion of time they spend at school and at work, in paid employment (Horan, 1996, p. 27).

Despite the emphasis on the instrumental aspects of lifelong learning, there is evidence that current documentation in this sector is presenting a more holistic commitment to the concept. Not only is one of the Common and Agreed Goals of the sector to provide "vocational education and training that meets the needs of individuals, especially employment needs, and supports lifelong learning" (Appendix 11), but policy statements and annual reports also promote lifelong learning. For example, documentation received from the Australian Capital Territory suggests that:

> students should be developed as individuals and prepared for future employment; life long education and training; and citizenship. To achieve these aims, students should be encouraged to complete a broad general education including the Key Competencies to the end of Year 12 in the senior secondary school system. (Department of Education and Training and Children's Services, 1995, p. 1)

Similarly, one of the four priorities identified in the Australian National Training Authority's 1995 Annual Report (Australian National Training Authority, 1995, p. 8), is the creation and promotion of opportunities for lifelong learning. In recommending that "Australia must come to put a high value on learning, not just in people's early years, but as a continuing process of lifelong personal and career development" (Australian National Training Authority, 1995,p. 11), it suggested a swing back to the original, holistic mission of the technical and further education sector.

1.4. Higher Education

Until fairly recently, the higher education sector in Australia was basically an 'Èlite' system, offering places to students who could afford to pay, or who gained entry to university under various scholarship schemes subsidised by government and private enterprise. In 1955, for instance, the number of students enrolled in the entire higher education system totalled a mere 31,000 (Department of Employment, Education and Training, 1993a, p. 45). By 1995, this figure stood at 604,000 with 41% as part-time or external students. This twenty-fold increase in participation is much greater than the overall population growth over the same period.

The transition from Èlite to mass provision has occurred in a series of phases. The first major growth spurt was probably after 1974, when tertiary tuition fees were abolished. The early and mid-1980s witnessed an unprecedented demand for places by students, unfortunately coinciding with the recession years and consequent reductions in government funding for universities. In 1988, the Government issued a major policy paper which led to significant restructuring (Dawkins, 1988), along with another leap in enrolments. Most recently, however, the newly elected Coalition government has made significant funding cuts to the higher education sector over the ensuing three years, and this, combined with increased student charges[4], is likely to signal a significant curtailment or at least consolidation in demand[5].

Until 1988, a 'binary system' operated in which colleges of advanced education and institutes of technology (essentially 'teaching' institutions) were funded at lower levels than universities ('teaching and research' institutions). In that year, however, the Federal Government made far-reaching changes to the system: the 78 universities, colleges of advanced education and institutes of technology which had existed prior to 1988 were rationalised into 36 publicly funded universities in the Unified National System; the Federal Government assumed centralised responsibility for funding of recurrent and capital costs and research expenditure on the basis of agreed educational profiles with each institution; a 'user-pays' Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) was introduced; and access to university for all who could benefit from it became a national priority. At this stage, social justice was firmly on the agenda, as evidenced by the publication of a major discussion paper entitled A Fair Chance for All: Higher Education That's Within Everyone's Reach (Department of Employment, Education and Training, 1990). Following these sweeping reforms, the challenge in the late 1980s and early 1990s was "to find the appropriate balance between maintaining a higher education system able to take a long-term and independent approach in pursuing its teaching, scholarly and research functions, and using higher education more effectively to address national economic and social problems" (Department of Employment, Education and Training, 1993a, p. 26). The tensions inherent in this dual role have continued to plague the higher education sector in the intervening years.

In fact, four main issues have driven government policy on higher education since the late 1980s: the "twin principles" of "participation" and "equity" (Department of Employment, Education and Training, 1993a, p. 23); the allocation of university resources equitably between school leavers and mature-age students[6], the role of the sector in national economic recovery; and finally the potential of the sector to contribute to foreign earnings. In a country where higher education is seen as "one of Australia's major export earning industries with annual income to Australia exceeding $2 billion" (Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, 1996, p. 2), it is hardly surprising that universities are described as being "as much a part of the national infrastructure as roads, communication networks and financial services" (Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, 1996, p. 2), and that learning is seen as a commodity in much the same way as students and graduates are "products."

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[4] Prior to 1996, the standard Higher Education Contribution Scheme charge per full-time student per year was $2442. Under the differential HECS system recently introduced, a three-tier system will charge students according to the income-generating capacity of the degree program undertaken. For instance, students in subjects such as Law and Medicine can expect to pay $5500 per year for their studies, which is expected to reduce demand for these courses (Armitage, 1996, p 24).

[5] The Coalition government, elected in March 1996, announced in its August budget the reintroduction of fees for 25% of local places at universities. Previously, full fee-paying places were available only to international students. In addition, 1000 merit-based HECS exemption scholarships will be available annually over the next four years (Armitage, 1996, p 24).

[6] Following the 1996 budget, the kinds and numbers of courses offered at Australian universities will be reviewed, and the number of postgraduate courses will be reduced. While the government argues for cost-efficiency in a market-driven environment, the long-term effects of measures designed to prune both course offerings and student participation must ultimately work against lifelong learning. Increases in HECS charges will most probably impact on the already declining demand for university places from the 17-24 year old cohort, who have traditionally provided the bulk of the student population.

Unfortunately, but perhaps not unexpectedly, there is something of a disjunction between the rhetoric and the reality when it comes to higher education's commitment to, and role within, a system of lifelong education. Lip service to the concept has been widespread with some eight commissioned reports in the sector addressing the need to implement lifelong learning in the undergraduate curriculum (Appendix 12). One of the earliest mentions of lifelong learning in the higher education sector appeared in the Federal Government's 1988 White Paper (Dawkins, 1988), which set the predominant tone for the way in which it was conceptualised within the system during the next five years:

> The principle of lifelong education is now accepted as fundamental to achieving social, cultural, technological and structural change, and to our future economic development. (Dawkins, 1988, p. 68)

Notwithstanding the prevailing economic rationalism, some reports went against the tide of vocationalism in higher education and criticised the system for its narrow, functional view of the purpose and role of universities. The largely unrecognised report, Priorities for Reform in Higher Education (Aulich, 1990), for example, took a broader social and cultural view of lifelong learning and:

> urged universities to take a more active role in providing continuing education for their graduates and in rectifying the existing 'policy of benign neglect' (p. 99) towards lifelong education, which it saw as important for the nation in both 'economic and social terms' (p. 99). (Candy, Crebert & O'Leary, 1994, p. 19)

Subsequent reports, however, tended to endorse the instrumental approach, and it was not until the 1994 commissioned report, Developing Lifelong Learners through Undergraduate Education (Candy, Crebert & O'Leary, 1994b) that there was any concerted effort to integrate the two perspectives on lifelong learning. This report found that few stakeholders in higher education, with the exception of librarians, had any clear understanding of the importance of lifelong learning in higher education or the university's role in developing and supporting it; that only a fraction of universities openly stated a commitment to lifelong learning in their public documentation; and that it was not a topic of debate either in discussion or in the literature of higher education in Australia.

On a more positive note, in those universities where there was explicit support for lifelong learning from senior management, there was far greater likelihood of its being implemented in the curriculum. Recent university documentation is clearly endorsing lifelong learning. Deakin University, for example, is advertising its courses under the slogan "lifelong learning," and documentation for degree structures provided to the authors by The Northern Territory University states that "provision of a capacity for lifelong learning should be the **foundation and essential core** of any undergraduate degree" (Northern Territory University, 1995b, p. 4).

Though lifelong learning is enshrined as one of the professional values of university teachers (Australian Vice-Chancellor's Committee, 1993, p. 1), commitment to lifelong learning in real terms has proved to be the exception rather than the rule, and the conditions which prevail in most Australian universities (such as overcrowding of university classrooms; the compulsion for university lecturers to achieve more with fewer resources; pressures on students to view a university degree as a "job ticket" in a depressed employment market; increased fees for undergraduate and postgraduate studies; and reductions in government funding for higher education) are sending contradictory messages to the community about the system's ability to support lifelong learning, or indeed, to remain committed to it.

Candy, Crebert and O'Leary (1994, pp. 84-89) found that many of the systems and structures currently in place at Australian universities actively worked against the implementation of lifelong learning in the undergraduate curriculum. These were: failing to mention lifelong learning in the mission statement; ignoring statements of missions and goals or treating them as irrelevant; overloading the curriculum; imposing too much detail at too advanced a level; making excessive use of lectures and other didactic approaches; failing to connect learning with the world of practice; using forms of assessment that encourage 'reproductive' learning; not giving students timely, intelligible feedback on their work; viewing the library as just a storehouse of books; and viewing the university experience as nothing more than vocational training.

In spite of the widespread malaise about (and, in some instances, active resistance towards) lifelong learning in the universities, there are examples of practices which support it. Probably the most significant overall is the development of flexible delivery modes and the Open Learning Agency. This domain, which was previously referred to as 'external studies' or as 'distance education' has a long and distinguished history in Australia, extending back to the first decade of the present century when the University of Queensland made some of its degree programs available for study at a distance. In the intervening years, it has gone through many transforma-

tions, but always with a focus on the convenience of the learner and enhancing his or her ability to learn in the workplace, the home or the community. However, even in this most enlightened and flexible of modes, lifelong learning might prove to be elusive especially when, as increasingly happens, access to technology such as audio and video recorders, telephones and fax machines and latterly computers equipped with modems, is required in order to be able to participate, thus precluding some individuals from access to this form of learning.

In addition to such flexible modes of delivery, however, there is heartening evidence of greater attention to lifelong learning within particular degree programs (Candy, Crebert & O'Leary, 1994, pp. 189-288) in such forms as the growing emphasis on the teaching of information literacy; flexible, responsive timetabling (the introduction of summer vacation semesters and the provision of 24 hour access to libraries and computer centres, for example); the recognition of prior learning (from life experience and the workplace) and the coordination of credit transfer between sectors through the Australian Credit Transfer Agency, even though most of these functions have now been devolved to the universities following low public demand for the services (Illing, 1996, p. 38); the use of interactive technology in teaching and learning; joint ventures between universities and industry in curriculum design and work experience programs and clinical placements, all contribute to lifelong learning.

2. Nonformal Sector

There is little doubt that nonformal education is, and has always been, a very fragmented part of the educational domain. Although it accounts for a significant proportion of the actual learning which goes on in any society, the fact that much of the learning is hidden, uncoordinated and voluntary makes it difficult to quantify. The sector itself is extremely diffuse, encompassing courses and programs offered by such diverse providers as church and cultural groups; the YMCA and YWCA; professional and semi-professional bodies; universities, Technical and Further Education Institutes; schools; workers' educational associations; private tutors; State and Commonwealth Departments; public libraries; museums; and art galleries (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 329), as well as a whole range of employment-related learning opportunities and activities which take place in the workplace. Because of this diversity, no aggregate data is collected.

Moreover, there is little coordination between the Commonwealth and the States in the provision of adult education. According to the government report entitled Come in Cinderella (Aulich, 1991, p. 163), this is simultaneously a strength, in that it promotes diversity in the system, and a weakness because it has inhibited the **development of national policy or means of credit recognition. Thus, one of the paradoxes about attempting to study the extent to which Australia is moving towards being a** learning society is the fact that the very evidence that might be most persuasive (ie., overall rates of participation in a variety of post-school learning activities) is almost impossible to obtain.

Nevertheless, despite these problems, an attempt is made in this paper to identify the nature and extent of nonformal education in Australia. Although it is somewhat arbitrary, the discussion of nonformal learning has been subdivided into the following three subsections: vocational education and training; continuing professional development; and non-vocational adult and community education.

2.1. Vocational Education and Training (Continuous Skill Formation).

As previously mentioned, part of the vocational education and training (VET) sector resides under the general rubric of 'formal education,' principally within Institutes of Technical and Further Education (TAFE) throughout Australia. The 'nonformal' component of the sector is spread throughout industry, commerce and government, in literally thousands of individual workplaces. Because of this diversity, it is very difficult to be specific about the influence of VET nationwide, although as a generalisation, it does seem to have had a major impact which, for some people at least, extends well beyond the specifics of their employment situation.

The transformation of VET has been led largely by the Federal Government, through a series of policy initiatives such as award restructuring, micro-economic reform, Training Guarantee legislation, and multiskilling. Taken together, the overall emphasis has been on producing a much more flexible, adaptable and internationally competitive workforce, which is expressed in a series of reports including Working Nation, Enterprising Nation, One Nation and Creative Nation, although it must be said that at least some of these initiatives have been discontinued by the recently-elected Federal Government, which appears to be pursuing a rather different social, cultural, political and economic agenda from that of its predecessor.

One of these reports, the so-called Karpin Report (Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the Challenges of the Asia-Pacific Century, 1995), found that while Australia's managers were equal to the best in the world, there were not enough of them, and they did not respond quickly enough to change. This led to the government response in December 1995, Innovate Australia, a $A24.8 million package for training 80,000 frontline managers as well as action to support firms to increase senior management opportunities for women and for people from non-English speaking backgrounds.

In announcing this package, one of the strategies of the then Minister of Employment, Education and Training - Hon Simon Crean - was to develop 'Enterprise Education' in order to strengthen links between schools and industry. Under the scheme, school curricula would include enterprise skills development, including: interpersonal communication; initiative; independence; creativity; problem solving; decision making; self-assurance; self-motivation; ability to work in teams; technological and business skills. Another strategy was to involve and fund the Australian Institute of Management in the delivery of "demonstration projects to assist enterprises to develop and implement training packages across industries and enterprises of various sizes" (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995b, p. 26), while a third approach was to develop on-line programs available to small business through Educational Network Australia (EdNA).

The major thrust of the former government's policy might best be summed up in the following quote from the 1995 Australian Year Book:

> There is a widespread view that Australians need to become more skilled to cope with technological change. As the skills needed to perform jobs change, training becomes more important so that today's labour force is not disadvantaged when tomorrow's technology arrives. The concept of lifelong learning has become part of the national consciousness. This growing awareness has been enhanced by increased commitment to a skilled labour force and the recognition and formalisation of competency levels in some occupations. (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 6)

One of the consequences of the 'recognition and formalisation of competency levels,' has been the push towards providing credit or recognition for prior learning towards formal awards. In a recent discussion paper on cross-sectoral implications of lifelong learning, the former National Board of Employment, Education and Training stated:

> The National Board believes that the design and implementation of a national system for the recognition of prior learning, available to all, could be a particularly important means by which the Commonwealth Government could promote lifelong learning in the Australian community. Progress towards a national system should be accelerated through the Australian Credit Transfer Agency by increasing its scope in the short term to implement a national system covering all sectors, including the vocational education and training sector and the workplace. (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, pp. 16-17)

Unfortunately, however, instead of expanding its mandate, the Australian Credit Transfer Agency has had to curtail its scheme of recognition of prior learning because of limited demand for paid assessments (Illing, 1996, p. 38), thus throwing the onus once more onto individual workplaces (and, in some cases, even onto individual learners) to negotiate credit for prior learning on a case-by-case basis. Some such schemes have been extremely successful. Ford Australia, for instance, has introduced courses which recognise and accredit on-the-job learning and which articulate into university programs: the 'Ford Studies Program' leads to a Certificate, which in turn leads into Deakin University's BAppSc and other degree courses. The program:

> draws on the expertise of Ford's own staff in teaching the course. Tutors from the company and from Deakin meet regularly with students on-site, in their own working environment, and have jointly designed the self-paced course materials. The course is largely based in computer-managed learning, and Ford not only provide workstations with computer, modem and printer in each plant, but also lend students lap-top computers for their own use - thus allowing 24 hour access to electronic communication with tutors, and computer-managed assessment tasks. (Crebert, 1995, p. 16)

In a similar vein, Uncle Toby's (a large food processing company specialising in snack and health foods):

> is a leading example of a private enterprise which has introduced 'formal education' into the workplace in a bid to up-grade its employees' qualifications (by introducing a Certificate in Food Processing)...Self-paced learning modules have been designed with local TAFE Institutes, and the company has built its own Open Learning Centre open 24 hours and accessible by community. (Crebert, 1995, p. 16)

It is apparent, therefore, that if any one sector of education is going to lead the way in the implementation of lifelong learning, ironically, it is likely to be this one. As previously mentioned, the formerly distinct domains of formal preparation for the workplace in schools and colleges and the nonformal training of people already in the workforce, is rapidly giving way to an integrated concept of 'continuous skill formation.'

Although this concept may be predominantly concerned with the development of work-related skills, and thus fail to account for other aspects of human potential, there are intriguing indications that access to, and participation in, workplace-based training programs may lead people to participate in other learning activities as well. As the Australian Association for Adult and Community Education states in its report entitled Lifelong Learning:

The Third Age:

> The propensity to participate in structured [and, indeed, in unstructured] adult education and training later in life is strongly correlated with previous educational attainment. Education - at least for those who have successful experiences of it - is addictive in character; the more you have had, the more you want. This is reflected in the classic participation curve for adult education and training, which shows participation rates increasing with income, occupational status, and with previous educational attainment. (Association for Adult and Community Education, 1995, p. 9)

Accordingly, there is reason to suppose that the increased availability of workplace-based learning within Australian enterprises may lead to higher rates of voluntary participation in other educational programs and indeed in various other types of self-improvement. Such participation is likely to be further enhanced if learners can see a mechanism whereby the learning gained in one setting could be recognised and accredited in another. The above-mentioned report of the National Board of Employment, Education and Training on cross-sectoral implications of lifelong learning includes the following:

> The Adult and Community Education Working Party has indicated its strong support for the design and implementation of a national system for the recognition of prior learning because of the potential for enabling people who have gained significant skills through means other than formal education, to have these skills recognised and to access formal education and training opportunities. The recognition of prior learning experiences (for example, through workplace, home, voluntary or leisure activities) can target people who otherwise would be either unwilling or unable to undertake education and training and, in the process, to facilitate their transformation into lifelong learners. (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 16)

Overall, the vocational education and training sector supports lifelong learning in a number of important ways, among them by providing a greatly expanded number of places; setting up improved pathways and credit transfer arrangements between and among TAFE, schools, and the higher education sector; offering greater opportunities for adults in the workforce to retrain both on and off the job; forging stronger links with industry in both curriculum development and joint ventures; providing flexible training programs and improved access to training programs (especially for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders, women and migrants); and offering leisure and personal enrichment courses to the adult community. However, the sector needs to recognise the importance of "the extent to which learning-to-learn features are present or inherent in vocational education and training, as well as the extent to which vocational education and training promotes lifelong learning through its content, structure and processes" (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 7).

2.2. Continuing Professional Development

Most professions require people to hold higher education qualifications in order to be admitted to or registered for practice. One of the defining characteristics of a profession is that, after graduation and admission to the field, its members voluntarily and routinely undertake additional training and conference attendance, or at least professional reading, in order to maintain their expertise. This is probably most fully developed in the case of airline pilots and specialist medical practitioners, but increasingly other professions have also become more precise and explicit in their expectations. While there is a heated, and largely unresolved, debate about the merits or otherwise of mandatory continuing professional development, throughout the world many professional groups now have the expectation, if not the requirement, that practitioners will participate in a range of continuing professional development activities annually, or at least over a three or five year period, in order to maintain their currency.

A survey of documentation provided by five professions in Australia revealed that they frequently use the terms 'continuing professional development' and 'lifelong learning' interchangeably. In many cases, continuing professional development is taken to mean lifelong learning rather than being one component of it. There were few indications that lifelong learning was viewed by the professions as anything more than a natural outcome of continuing professional development (itself predicated on the inclusion of a substantial component of continuing professional education). In addition, most of the documentation suggested that lifelong learning is rarely viewed by the professions in the holistic sense in which interdisciplinary learning for personal enrichment plays such an important part. Where acknowledgment was given to the need for professionals to diversify, it tended to be couched in strictly pragmatic terms. For example, The Institution of Engineers, Australia lists among its aims the responsibility to support the education and personal development of members and to facilitate the recognition and competence of members, both of which aims are linked to the maintenance of high standards of technical and ethical performance and competitive advantage in their practice (Institution of Engineers, Australia, 1995, p. 5).

The Australian Institute of Agricultural Science provided a different, broader view of professional development. In its requirements for certification the Institute stated that:

> The term 'professional development' encompasses the full range of experiences, both formal and informal which contribute to the development of an individual's professional expertise. Professional development can occur both within and outside normal work obligations. (The Australian Institute of Agricultural Science, 1993, p.6)

If the documentation in general tended to ignore the holistic view of lifelong learning, it certainly emphasised the economic imperatives (both at national and individual levels) for continuing professional development, on the basis that an 'up-dated' profession is better able to contribute to the common good. For example, the mission statement of Engineering Education, Australia, a wholly owned subsidiary of The Institution of Engineers, Australia states that it:

> provides continuing education and training opportunities for engineering personnel to facilitate performance and careers, and the goal of making the nation's industry more productive, competitive and capable of generating longer-term economic growth. (Institution of Engineers, Australia, 1995, p. 20)

This economic rationalist approach to continuing professional development ignores the value of all the nonformal and informal learning activities that occur in a professional career. Indeed, the deliberate exclusion by The Australian Institute of Agricultural Science of any "self-directed activities such as professional reading," (Australian Institute of Agricultural Science, 1993, p. 6) from the structured learning activities that constitute continuing professional education must, inevitably, constrain the profession's view of itself and its role in lifelong learning.

In such a prescriptive paradigm, it is not surprising that most professions regard continuing professional education as essential to the maintenance of standards and that many have made it mandatory for their members. While most professions are content to promote continuing professional development in order to maintain standards, two notable exceptions are the medical and accounting professions which are more forward-looking in their stated aims and policies. In the case of medicine, this has been attributed to the teaching and learning philosophies of Hippocrates and Plato (Hewson, 1989, p. 27) and the influence of Sir William Osler early in the twentieth century. In his lecture to medical students on the importance of postgraduate study Osler acknowledged that "more clearly than any other, the physician should illustrate the truth of Plato's saying that education is a lifelong process" (Osler, in Atkinson, 1995, p. 47). The Australian Medical Association's Policy on Medical Education (1992), for example, says that:

> The AMA considers that individual medical practitioners must maintain their professional standards. Maintenance of standards can, in its broadest sense, include any activity that facilitates lifelong learning and the timely adoption of proven innovations in medical practice.

The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia similarly views continuing professional development as a lifelong activity and has developed its own "CPE for Life Matrix" to give "Chartered Accountants access to specialist retraining and skills improvement courses throughout their careers" (The Institute of Chartered Accountants, Australia, 1994a, p. 2). This Institute has set up its own vehicle for delivering continuing professional education courses, the Australian Graduate School of Accountancy of the Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia, to "recognise that the education of Chartered Accountants is a life-long process from university through to retirement" (Institute of Chartered Accountants, 1994a, p. 3). Documentation provided by the Institute suggested a far greater flexibility and adaptability to change than is evident in some other professions (eg law), as well as a commitment to lifelong learning approaches in undergraduate courses:

> The professional bodies expect a suitable curriculum to provide a total educational experience, which desirably includes a broad foundation of general education, an introduction to the environment and skills relevant to a career in business, and treatment in depth of selected key aspects of professional education. The approach and cohesiveness of the course are considered particularly important. Emphasis should be placed on the development of critical thinking, analytical reasoning, problem-solving skills and research techniques which support the ability for continued lifetime self-learning. (Institute of Chartered Accountants, 1996, p. 4)

The changing attitude of the accounting profession has not been unique to Australia. Across the world:

> A case of professional paradigm shifting occurred in the last thirty years in the accounting profession. Not so long ago accountants were simply professionals who were exceptionally proficient 'counters' for business and related purposes. As auditors and record keepers their future seemed infinitely limited. At some point along the way accountants paused to reflect on what they counted. Someone, somewhere, somehow, determined that counting was only one step in the process of creating, preserving and disposing of wealth. Slowly and ineluctably accountants became business and management consultants, estate and tax planners,

> training and technology advisers, forensic experts with large litigation support departments, valuators, and - most recently - owners of large law firms! (Gold, 1996, p. 8)

Whether or not the maintenance of standards implies the preservation of the status quo or whether it implies creating "something more than the static conservation of the existing standards of professional practice" (Gabb, 1991, p. 1), participation in continuing professional education programs is increasingly becoming tied to the reaccreditation or recertification process. Most professions in Australia rely on a composite mix of continuing professional education, professional experience, quality assurance and self- and peer-assessment for reaccreditation purposes. Usually, participation in terms of hours equates with points accrued, which qualify the professional for reaccreditation. For some, this is an indictment of a system in which "the adoption of mandatory CPE [is] a comment on the failure of initial training to develop an attitude of lifelong learning and professional ethics to its trainees" (Brennan, 1990, p. 128).

Despite the move by many professions towards competency-based, performance-oriented professional standards, the range of activities offered in the main tends to be dominated by the traditional in-house lecture given by an internal or external expert. This kind of activity is characterised by all the trappings of formal classroom teaching, which generally militate against teaching and learning approaches for lifelong learning and where:

> a single instructor lectures and lectures and lectures fairly large groups of business and professional people, who sit for long hours in an audiovisual twilight, making never-to-be-read notes at rows of narrow tables covered with green baize and appointed with fat binders and sweating pitchers of ice water. (Nowlen in Cervero, 1992, p. 91)

Gloomy as this picture of continuing professional education is, there are many positive things that the professions are doing to promote, if not lifelong learning then certainly continuing professional development. The range of learning activities which comes under the banner of continuing professional education is extensive, and includes, for example: conferences, symposia, forums, lectures, seminars, workshops, discussion groups, video and audio tapes, publications, portfolios, practice audits, supervised learning projects, teaching and research, quality assurance, guided learning packages, self-directed reading and self-assessment tests. Some Australian professional bodies acknowledge the importance of promoting lifelong learning in their public documentation, but all contribute to the continuing professional development of their members.

2.3. Adult and Community Education

Important as work-related nonformal learning is, it hardly exhausts the whole domain of adult and community education. There are many definitions of what is included within this sector. A comprehensive and useful definition is contained in the report of the Senate Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training entitled Come in Cinderella, which defined adult and community education as "an activity oriented towards lifelong learning" which:

> - makes provision for the recurrent vocational, personal, cultural and social development of people regardless of their employment status, who are beyond compulsory school age but are not primarily engaged in post-school education and training programs;
> - involves complex but coherent forms of cooperative learning geared to the adult status of its participants, and committed to their empowerment through skill acquisition, access to information and introduction to fields of knowledge;
> - is not necessarily constrained by the conventions of place, time and teaching/learning methods which may apply in the familiar settings of the school, TAFE college or university; and
> - is fundamentally a learner-centred and needs-based practice, characterised by active concern for accessibility, democratic processes, social justice, and success measured primarily in terms relevant to the needs and aspirations of the individual participants. (Aulich, 1991, p. 175)

The 1994-95 Annual Report of the Victorian Department of Education states even more briefly that:

> The goal of the adult, community and further education sector is to provide Victorian adults with the opportunity to participate in life-long learning that contributes to their social, cultural and economic development as individuals and as members of the community. (Department of Education, Victoria, 1995, p. 117)

It is interesting to note that both of these definitions include specific reference to lifelong learning; indeed, as a sector, adult and community education sees itself as so integral to the provision of lifelong learning that, for many people, the two concepts are often used interchangeably. Clearly, however, they are not synonymous; as this paper shows, there are many aspects of lifelong learning which do not occur in adulthood at all. Yet adult and community educators make a good point when they claim:

> As a nation we seem to have accepted the validity of the concept of lifelong learning. Yet lifelong learning cannot be adequately delivered by an education system that is structurally static and operationally slow to adapt. (Aulich, 1991, p. 9).

Unfortunately, adult education participation data are notoriously sketchy and unreliable; however, the overview of the above report claimed that six out of ten Australian adults were engaged in some form of adult/community education (Senate Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training, 1991, p1). The same report identified some of the reasons for participation as: workplace restructuring; the need for regular upgrading of workers' skills; a more competitive labour market; entry of people with disabilities into the workforce; and an ageing population with people seeking intellectual stimulation or interested in acquiring basic independent living skills.

As alluded to previously, adult and community education programs are offered by many different providers, including: university centres for continuing education; learning centres; community care centres; community schools; education centres; voluntary teaching networks; literacy groups; women's education programs; teachers' centres; ethnic networks; discussion centres; and neighbourhood centres. The sector is run largely on a voluntary or semi-voluntary basis, with very few resources and, for the most part, virtually no government funding.

Not unexpectedly, the range of programs is extremely wide[7]. Courses include: general interest (e.g., history, literature, languages, politics, philosophy, and science); recreational and leisure activities; health and personal development; social awareness; arts and crafts; English as a Second Language (ESL) programs; general access and bridging programs; vocational, remedial and basic education; as well as certain formal secondary and some vocational education qualifications obtained through full- or part-time study with community-based providers and non-profit organisations.

In reviewing such a list of programs and providers, it is apparent that adult education embodies two very different, and at times incommensurable, objectives. Traditionally, adult education has been motivated by a social reformist and egalitarian agenda, with the intention of providing 'second-chance' learning opportunities, especially for those who, in the words of a recent report, "have been discouraged from learning by a lack of self-esteem, self-confidence or sense of direction"(National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 14). More recently, however, it has sought to be part of the Government's training agenda and to obtain the funding, recognition and other benefits that flow from being seen as contributing towards the productive life of the economy. This 'split personality,' clearly affects the work of many adult education providers:

> While the adult and community education sector acknowledges the importance of lifelong learning for employment, it also believes it has a much wider purpose. Providers within the adult and community education sector claim that one of the most important aspects of the sector is increasing self-worth or learning for growth and the sector excels in the area of non-employment related, non-vocational learning. There are some concerns that the non-vocational aspect could become increasingly devalued, possibly due to differential funding within the sector, and that the needs and interests of some sections of the community of learning could be overlooked. (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 15)

There are indeed many sections of the community whose needs might be overlooked in favour of the more instrumental (and remunerative) domain of employment-related learning. These include the elderly, those from ethnic and linguistic minorities, those in remote or isolated locations, and indigenous people (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders).

With respect to the educational needs of the elderly, as Australia's population ages, there will need to be better educational provision for the aged. In 1995, the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) commissioned the Australian Association of Adult and Community Education Inc (AAACE) to research the sector and to coordinate a National Policy Forum. According to the AAACE report Lifelong Learning: The Third Age, the number of those in retirement is expected to double between 1994 and 2041 from 2.1 million to over 4 million (Australian Association of Adult and Community Education, 1995, p. iii).

This study identified a range of non-formal learning opportunities for older Australians, including: Probus Clubs; Australian Retired Persons Associations; Neighbourhood Houses and Community Centres; Clubs and societies for special interests; Early Planning for Retirement Association; Leisure Options for Older People; Active Seniors Program; Learning for the Less Mobile; and Telelink Education Programs. In addition, more formal opportunities are available through: the Australian College for Seniors (based on US Elderhostel system); Schools for Seniors; General adult education programs (such as those provided by through TAFE, WEA, etc.); and Universities of the Third Age (in 1995, there were 110 U3As, with membership of 26,000). The report goes on to point out that, despite the proliferation of learning opportunities for older adults, funding still remains heavily in favour of the 'front-end model' of education, that there has been no significant shift in resources provided for third age education, and that "greater commitment to enhancing education and training opportunities for older people will be a litmus test of government seriousness in pursuing lifelong learning strategies" (Australian Association of Adult and Community Education, 1995, p. 2).

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[7] TAFE is the largest single provider of leisure and cultural programs and activities. In 1993, for instance, over 600,000 students were enrolled in TAFEs "Stream 1000" courses (recreation, leisure, personal enrichment). Among their offerings are programs as diverse as: Communication for women; Computer animation; Confidence, credibility and composure; Darkroom developing; Decoupage; Didjeridoo; Freelance photojournalism; Indonesian; Introduction to arc welding; Lawn bowls; Leadlighting; Line dancing; Rockclimbing; Selling skills; Speaking effectively for personal development; The creative individual: An experience in self-development; Traditional collectable teddy bear making; and Worm farming for the home gardener.

Turning to the educational provision for those of non English-speaking backgrounds (NESB), since the end of the Second World War, Australia has maintained a huge immigration scheme. Today, it is one of the most linguistically diverse nations on earth, yet English is the only official language, and some degree of facility with English is required for most employment, and to function effectively within the community.

Although in the 1991 census, more than 75.6% of the population was reported as having been born in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 119), the country is far from mono-cultural. In the period between 1947 and 1992, the rate of increase in migration from non English-speaking countries was almost double that from English-speaking countries such as the United Kingdom and New Zealand (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 118). Of these immigrants, those from European countries were the largest group; however, there is a growing number from Asia, particularly South-East Asia. In 1995, for instance, 21% (866,000) of Australians born overseas came from Asia. This group accounted for 5% of the total Australian population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 10).

Growth in migration rates increased steadily after the Second World War until the mid-1970s and has continued to fluctuate until the present. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics, "net overseas migration is estimated to have directly contributed 44.5% of the total population increase between 1982 and 1992" (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 118), and is "projected to take over from natural increase as the most significant component of growth around the year 2026" (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 21).

The migrant intake over recent years has been relatively well-educated, with 49% having acquired post-school qualifications, compared with the Australian-born population figure of 41%, though the proportion of qualified immigrants was greater (56%) amongst those from English-speaking countries (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 86). In addition to this, in 1993 some 19% of recent immigrants had gained post-school qualifications since their arrival in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 89), and already qualified migrants were more likely to go on to gain further post-school qualifications in Australia than those who arrived with only minimal qualifications (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 89. To assess professional qualifications attained overseas, the Australian Government has set up the National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (NOOSR), and a similar body - Trades Recognition Australia (TRA) - to assess trade qualifications. In 1993, 60% of overseas immigrants had their qualifications recognised in Australia, but recognition of qualifications does not guarantee employment, which is often dependent upon local work experience as well as proficiency in English (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 89). Immigrants from non English-speaking countries, for instance, despite their qualification profile, experienced a much higher rate of unemployment (16.0%) in 1993 than their counterparts from English speaking countries (6.2%) (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 90).

To improve language proficiency for immigrants, various English language programs operate. These include the Adult Migrant English Program (in operation since 1947), the Workplace English Language and Literacy program, and the Advanced English for Migrants Program. In 1994, over 31,000 migrants participated in the Adult Migrant English Program. Newly arrived immigrants are entitled to 510 hours of English language tuition to bring them up to a functional level, but most require only a fraction of this time; in 1994 the average was 381 hours. Community outreach activities, counselling, placement and referral services and child care provision are available for migrants who need these services in order to attend formal language classes. A number of government funded labour market programs also include components of English language education (Aulich, 1991, p. 98).

Despite these various provisions and opportunities, migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds have had to overcome a number of barriers to participation in education and training programs. Among these are: access to free child care; dependence on public transport; cultural constraints on participating in mixed gender classes; low literacy levels in their own languages; and adult educators' lack of special training in culturally sensitive areas (Aulich, 1991, p. 99).

It would seem, therefore, that proficiency in English is a major factor influencing both employment opportunities and participation in further education and training. While every attempt is made to provide all immigrants with access to English language classes, various practical and cultural impediments seem to stand in the way of lifelong learning for quite a few of them. As Butler commented in 1989:

> Amongst the most obvious examples of underdeveloped human potential in Australia today are the estimated 300,000 people of non-English speaking background who speak English 'poorly' [based on 1981 census figures]...as well as many tens of thousands more whose level of English language proficiency, while sufficient for daily living, is inadequate for them to undertake further education and training, or even to practise the skills which they gained in their home countries. (Butler, 1989, p. 11)

With respect to the educational needs of those in isolated and remote locations, the point has already been made that Australia is a vast and relatively sparsely populated continent. As a result, it has been a pioneer in the provision of what was formerly called distance education, but is now more commonly known as 'open learning.' Formal education in this mode has been available for decades through the Schools of the Air, and, as mentioned earlier in this paper, the University of Queensland was the second in the world to offer university-level studies at a distance, from as early as 1911. Formal vocational qualifications are also well catered for, through open learning networks in the various states, although for obvious reasons there are limits to the extent to which practical skills can be developed and assessed purely through open learning at a distance.

If it is true that a country may be judged according to its treatment of its most marginalised and powerless citizens, then Australia's record with regard to indigenous people certainly offers little cause for complacency. Until the referendum held in 1967, Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (Australia's indigenous peoples) were not even counted in the national census, nor did they have any rights of citizenship under the constitution. They were poorly educated, generally unemployed, and mostly lived, in subsistence conditions, in cities or isolated missions in outback Australia, where they were equally prone to alcoholism and crime. In many respects, living conditions for indigenous people in 1996 have not improved much. They still are the most educationally disadvantaged group in Australia, with 5% of people over 15 years having never attended school, compared with 0.1% of all Australians (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, pp 75-76).

In 1973, the Aboriginal Affairs (Arrangements with the States) Act was passed to enable the Commonwealth government to share with the States responsibility for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander matters. This system was administered by government departments until 1990, when the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) was formed to oversee self-determination for indigenous peoples. Education policy for Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders, however, is planned jointly by ATSIC and the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (DEETYA), which administers education programs for indigenous peoples.

It was not until 1988, when an Aboriginal Education Policy Task Force investigated the educational needs of indigenous peoples, that any kind of national approach to participation targets, programs, curricula and teaching methods was considered. The ensuing National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Policy (Joint Policy) came into effect in 1990 and laid out 21 long-term goals in four broad thematic areas: the involvement of indigenous peoples in educational decision-making; equality of access to educational services; equity of educational participation; and equitable and appropriate educational outcomes:

> The fundamental purpose of the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Policy is to develop appropriate ways of responding effectively and sensitively to the educational needs and aspirations of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. This requires an holistic approach, under the guidance of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, to achieve educational equity while accommodating cultural differences and recognising socio-economic disadvantage. (Commonwealth of Australia, 1993, p 2)

In 1994, the policy was subject to a review of performance against goals. The review committee found that involvement in educational decision-making by indigenous peoples had improved over the preceding four years. Increased representation on consultative groups, committees and boards of education, etc., and involvement in teaching the 'both ways' curriculum (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander culture and values are taught alongside the 'mainstream' curriculum, by indigenous and non-indigenous teachers) had contributed positively towards achievement of this goal.

Equality of access in education, however, remains largely unachieved. The committee found that although a significant proportion (32%) of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples live in isolated areas, only a small number of children attend schools in these areas on a regular basis. In many Aboriginal communities, there are no secondary schools and opportunities to attend boarding schools in major urban centres or to find board and lodging in town schools are limited. So too are opportunities to participate in correspondence courses through distance education centres. There are, nevertheless, some encouraging signs of new initiatives such as the Tanami Network, a video-teleconferencing link across northern Australia which delivers distance education programs to a large body of users (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995, p 59). Other programs involving the use of multi-media technologies are being positively received by Aboriginal communities, but there has been little use made of these systems for post-compulsory educational programs.

It is in these areas that participation rates of indigenous peoples is especially low, with 1994 figures indicating that only 18% of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders had completed a postcompulsory education qualification (ie, above Year 10 level), compared with 41% of non-indigenous Australians. While this percentage is very low, it nevertheless represents a significant increase over earlier figures.

The review committee found that the participation rates of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in primary education had doubled between 1985 and 1992 (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995, p 66), but that attendance was often irregular and subject to weather conditions, especially in tropical northern Australia. The rates of participation in and retention through the years of postcompulsory education have generally been much lower and more variable than those for primary education, but indigenous people have continued to enrol in TAFE courses at a rate double that of non-indigenous Australians (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995, p 73). There are a number of reasons for this high rate of participation in preparatory and vocational courses offered by TAFE institutes, among them their cultural and employment relevance, and their tailor-made curriculum design. Many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders see them as a 'second chance' to acquire a basic education (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995, p 74).

Participation of indigenous students in higher education has shown a rapid increase from 850 students in 1982, to 3,600 in 1990, to 5,578 in 1993. The majority of university students are enrolled in Arts, Humanities or Social Sciences, and Education. Participation in distance education programs has at times reached 19%, compared with 11% of non-indigenous students, which hints at the possibilities for future expansion of technologically-based educational opportunities for isolated communities (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995, p 76). Of all the factors influencing participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in formal education in Australia, perhaps none is more significant than the degree to which cultural diversity is valued in the system.

It is doubtful if there have been many statistically equitable or culturally appropriate outcomes for indigenous peoples from their experience in an education system geared to meet the needs of non-indigenous Australians. However, despite the numerous obstacles which still exist in these areas, the review committee found that there are many positive initiatives to promote Aboriginal languages and culture in bi-lingual 'homeland' preschools, schools with 'both ways' curricula and universities. Special units designed to help Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders cope with the demands of higher education exist in most universities and they have achieved much in lowering the attrition rates of these students.

Under the Joint Policy, a number of funding schemes have been put in place to support learning opportunities for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. Financial assistance is available through ABSTUDY for students completing schooling, TAFE or university education. Community-based educational initiatives in identified Commonwealth priority areas (such as the employment of more Aboriginal Education Workers in schools; the National Aboriginal Languages and Literacy Strategy; the Aboriginal Languages Education Strategy; and the National Reconciliation and Schooling Strategy) receive financial support through AESIP (Aboriginal Education Strategic Initiatives Program) at all levels of the education system. The Aboriginal Student Support and Parent Awareness scheme supports school-based parent committees to improve the educational opportunities for their children, while the Aboriginal Tutorial Assistance Scheme and the provision of Homework Centres for school children have contributed to improved retention rates at schools and universities. In the vocational education sector, VEGAS (Vocational and Educational Guidance for Aboriginals Scheme) provides information and counselling on education and employment options for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders.

The diverse conditions, needs and aspirations of today's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples make it imperative that all available learning opportunities are relevant and culturally appropriate. The Aboriginal peoples in Australia today have a long and proud history stretching back over 40,000 years to the Dreamtime, and they draw on this cultural heritage in their art, music and dancing. Lifelong learning in the context of an oral tradition assumes very different connotations from those in the western developed world. Aboriginal ways of learning are different from those of non-indigenous people and must be accommodated in any formal education system in which they participate.

3. Informal, Self-directed and Technology-linked Learning

Obviously the true measure of whether any society is moving towards being a learning society is the extent to which people voluntarily engage in continuing learning. As the National Board of Employment Education and Training report, Lifelong Learning: Key Issues, puts it:

> If the broad objectives of lifelong learning are realised, then a 'learning community' will develop where the acceptance of learning is simply part of the social or community fabric; an environment in which individuals are encouraged to use the skills acquired at school, TAFE or university in formal or informal learning contexts. It will also be a community where people will need to use these skills

> as their working lives change and as economic and social pressures shift. Learners will require assistance from education and training providers to make informed choices, have access to pathways to education and training, and be able to use a variety of learning options, including open learning through electronic means. (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 7)

Desirable as this ideal may seem, there are many difficulties and obstacles in the way of attaining it. Moreover, because such learning is highly individualistic and uncoordinated, few if any reliable data are available about its extent. From the pioneering work of Allen Tough in Canada, and many others since, we know that something like 90% of all adult learning is actually self-directed and, because no formal organising agency is involved, collecting information about its nature and extent is highly problematic. Despite considerable research efforts in countries throughout the world, it has proven to be virtually impossible to provide robust and reliable statistics about this aspect of the learning society. However if it is true that, for every one activity which forms part of an organised provision there are another nine activities that are submerged and hidden from view - the 'iceberg' of adult learning - then participation in nonformal adult education may be taken as a rough guide to participation in the totality of learning activities.

3.1. Newspaper Readership and Television Ownership

In common with other advanced western countries, Australia possesses a vibrant, diverse and basically competitive newspaper industry, although there are alarming indications of a concentration of media ownership, about which some commentators have expressed severe reservations. Perhaps because the information is confidential and commercial in nature, we found it difficult to obtain reliable nationwide data about newspaper readership. Nevertheless a recent survey of 60,000 people over the age of 14 in major metropolitan centres (June 1996) indicated that most people read at least one newspaper per day, although again in common with other similar countries, "the age of the average daily newspaper reader is increasing...with newspaper readership being more and more unusual amongst people under 25" (Morris, 1996, p. 10). Indeed, the entire daily newspaper industry is "facing the cumulative effects of a continuing decline in per capita circulation, a decline in actual circulation figures for its weekday editions (and with it a divergence between Monday to Friday papers and Saturday papers), an ageing readership, and an increase in newsprint prices" (Morris, 1996, p. 10).

Television of course is virtually ubiquitous: 99% of all Australian homes have at least one television set; indeed 55% of homes have two or more. In a study conducted in 1992 for the Australian Broadcasting Tribunal, and published under the title What We Want from Our TVs (Nugent, Sheldon et al., 1992), the most popular programs, in descending order of preference, were:

- news and current affairs (especially among older viewers)
- movies
- documentaries (again, amongst older viewers)
- regular drama/soaps
- comedy
- sport.

In an attitudinal part of the survey, 49% of those surveyed felt that there were not enough documentaries on people and events; 46% felt there were not enough travelogues and nature programs; and 42% said they wanted more science programs. It is impossible to say, however, whether this is still the case, as more recent data is unavailable and, in any case, the television broadcasting stations do not maintain records which identify 'educational' program as a separate category.

3.2. Participation in cultural events and activities

Clearly, an important aspect of lifelong learning is that which relates to people's active role in the economy. However, intellectual, aesthetic and spiritual pursuits are equally important to a well-balanced lifestyle and community. Indeed the role of the Australia Council under the Act which established it is precisely to encourage such pursuits:

> the Council's brief is to formulate and carry out policies to foster a strong artistic life throughout the nation by promoting excellence in and development of the arts. It also encourages involvement in the arts by all Australians and nurtures a culturally diverse national identity. (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994, p. 396)

From time to time, the Australian Bureau of Statistics collects data about Australians' attendance at various cultural activities and venues; the most recent such national data, for 1995, shows the following patterns:

Attendance at selected cultural venues/activities:

Cinema	62.1%
Botanical garden	38.5%
Library	38.4%
Animal and marine park	35.3%
Museum	27.8%
Popular music concert	26.9%
Art gallery	22.3%.
Opera or musical theatre	19.3%
Other performing arts	18.7%

Theatre	16.6%
Dance	10.0%
Classical music concert	7.7%

(Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1995a, p. 1)

The same survey also revealed the following facts about cultural participation:

- People with a Bachelors degree or higher had the highest participation rate at all venues or activities for persons who were no longer at school; generally participation rates at venues were highest for people in the lower to middle age groups, with persons 65 and over usually participating at significantly lower rates than people in other age groups;
- females participated at higher rates than males for all activities and across all age groups;
- attendances at all venues were higher in capital cities than in other regional areas;
- with the exception of library attendance, employed persons' participation rates were higher for all venues and activities than those of the unemployed or people not in the labour force;
- museums and art galleries were visited by people with bachelor's degrees or higher at similar rates (49.8% and 48.5% respectively). However, museum attendance was significantly more popular than going to an art gallery with all other people;
- there was a slight decline in attendance at all venues except libraries since the previous survey in 1991; and
- 38.4% of all people 15 years and over visited a National, State or local library and 17.1% used a school, college or university library in the 12 months to March 1995.

3.3. Availability and use of libraries for learning

From the foregoing, and from our knowledge of informal learning generally, the central importance of libraries as a cultural resource is particularly evident. Therefore, the question may be asked: 'In what ways do Australians use libraries for learning?' This too is a difficult question to answer, principally because of the lack of available consolidated data. However, in 1993, the Libraries' Working Group of the Cultural Ministers' Council commissioned a study of the usage of and attitudes towards libraries, which was published in March 1995 under the title Navigating the Economy of Knowledge: A National Survey of Users and Non-users of State and Public Libraries (Mercer, 1995).

The study began by developing a profile of library users and non-users. Based on 1991 figures (rather than the March 1995 figures used in Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues), the survey identified the following key characteristics of users of both State and public libraries:

- A very broad demographic spread of users through categories of age, gender, occupational status, ethnicity and income;
- High proportionate percentages of users in the 15-19 age group (21% for State Libraries and 13% for public libraries);
- High levels of usage for education and training, to the extent of functioning as an additional arm of the compulsory and post-compulsory educational infrastructure;
- High correlations between childhood use of libraries and later professional and high-income careers;
- Very high levels of support for the role of libraries in the 'information society';
- A 55% (State) to 59% (Public) level of aggregated agreement on charges for some library services corresponding to a 59% level of aggregated agreement among non-users;
- Higher proportionate levels of usage by those not born in Australia and Australians of non-English speaking background, particularly among younger people of Asian origin;
- Proportionately high rates of usage of both State and public libraries by Australians in professional occupations;
- High levels of computer ownership (58% among users of State Libraries), usage and literacy for educational and business purposes by students and professionals. (Mercer, 1995, p. 8)

Overall, states the report, "this aggregated picture of functional users is young, professional and future-oriented. Measures will need to be taken to consolidate this clientele..." (Mercer, 1995, p. 8). On the other hand, according to the report, there is no such thing as a 'typical non-user,' although five clusters of different types of 'non-users' were identified, with the intention of targeting at least some of them "to become more active users."

To achieve the vision of both keeping current clients and bringing in new ones will involve:

- Consolidating the profile and capacities of the library in lifelong learning, training and retraining; and
- Positioning the library system as a key and mainstream player in the information society and the knowledge economy as both 'brokerage agency' and 'navigator.' (Mercer, 1995, p. 8)

Having identified the categories of users and non-users, the study then went on to explore how both groups perceive the library (Appendix 13), which is variously viewed as:

- a repository of texts in print, visual and electronic media;
- an access point to the 'knowledge economy';
- a community centre;
- a business incubator for information and cultural industry development;
- a source of local knowledge;
- a research centre;
- a training and skill transfer centre;
- a place to get away from it all;
- a democratic and caring place; and
- a gateway to the public culture. (Mercer, 1995, p. 4)

Given this range of perceptions, it is little wonder that libraries are simultaneously viewed as "a crucial cog in the knowledge economy" (Mercer, 1995, p. 3), and, somewhat more lyrically, as "a vital component of the 'creative infrastructure' which is so important for Australia's future social, economic and cultural development in the knowledge economy" (Mercer, 1995, p. 1). With its "1400 local outlets - and 7 regional nodes or 'hyperlibraries'"(p. 1), the library system is perfectly positioned to "enable Australians to participate fully in open learning opportunities, government services, small business support, electronic communications, community networks and other opportunities for personal development" (Commonwealth of Australia, 1994b, p. 90) (Appendix 14).

According to the report, libraries are repositioning themselves by improving their services and profiles: "This re-positioning is a product of the policy imperatives of, on the one hand, providing wider access to the increasing networks of communications and information technologies and, on the other hand, skilling and re-skilling a work force in order to be both competitive and relatively autonomous in the context of a global information and knowledge economy" (Mercer, 1995, p. 5).

Such a shift involves a significant rethinking and broadening of the strategic importance of libraries. Although, as the report points out, "the library has always occupied a key position in the 'economy of knowledge' since its inception as a mechanism for fostering appropriate reading habits for the rapidly growing urban working classes in the nineteenth century" (Mercer, 1995, p. 10), increasingly, libraries are broadening their roles to act as "access points, as training centres, as research centres, and as key 'skill-incubators,' in collaboration with other education, government, community and private sector agencies - in developing and consolidating the creative infrastructure which has been identified as crucial to positioning Australia effectively...and in acting as a facilitator and broker for the 'content industries' " (Mercer, 1995, p. 5). By "content industries," the report means the whole range of ways in which information is packaged and purveyed: "newspapers and magazines, film, TV and video, packages software, recorded music, books, on-line information services, computer games and consumer directories" (Mercer, 1995, p. 5).

If this sounds rather fanciful for those accustomed to thinking of the library as a subdued and silent place full of dusty tomes and scribbling scholars, even more radical scenarios are posited in the Report, under the heading 'Analysis and Recommendations: Positioning, Marketing and Promotion':

> Usage of the library system by young people, especially students, is high but, in trend terms, relatively temporary. Once the program of study is completed, the library drops from view as a viable place for work or leisure. This is clear from the relatively high number of marginal non-users in this category. Many of these people will also go on to become professional and therefore more structural and resilient non-users and they will also go on to become parents with concerns for their own children's professional development.
>
> As a priority, therefore, serious consideration needs to be given to consolidating the position and profile of the library as a centre associated with 'youthfulness' - personal formation, skills formation, a gateway to mainstream culture, etc. This is likely to include amenities such as cafes and restaurant facilities, access to interactive multimedia resources, partnership and joint venture arrangements with TAFE, universities, open learning agencies and private colleges in education and training, sponsorship arrangements with computing and IT companies who want to attract a young and increasingly computer literate market. (Mercer, 1995, p. 61)

The report goes on to argue:

> The influential group identified [as] 'privatised cultural consumers' will not use the library simply because it is our most democratic cultural institution. They will, however, be more likely to use the library and library services if it is positioned as a key node in the knowledge economy - as an 'information switching station,' as the 'central intelligence system' of the local area or region. This group may not physically even visit the library but they are likely to visit it in cyberspace through local networks for business information, for information on local events, for access to wider national and international information networks. And, in using the library in both real and virtual forms, this group is likely to take it much more seriously as a facilitator of information dissemination rather than just

as a 'provider' of services. (Mercer, 1995, p. 63)

It would seem, then, that "the development of broadband services and the 'information superhighway' is perhaps comparable to the development of the electronic mass media of radio and television in the first decades of the twentieth century" (Mercer, 1995, p. 10), and that, like that earlier development, it will potentially have profound implications "for how people live and work and take their pleasures" (Mercer, 1995, p. 10).

3.4. Technology-linked Learning.

One of the distinguishing features of virtually all formal and nonformal learning, including libraries and radio or television broadcasts, is that the learner is obliged to conform, at least to some extent, to restrictions on when, where or how learning takes place. Although these restrictions might be relatively minor, with many degrees of freedom available to the learner, nevertheless there is usually a time, place, person or resource whose availability imposes some limitation on their learning. With the advent of modern communication technology, however, this limitation is almost entirely removed. The asynchronous nature of the medium means that the learner can access any information he or she wants at a time and place that is personally convenient, and the teacher, trainer, author, designer, instructor or other resource need not be available at that particular time or place.

Much has been written about the enormous potential of modern communication and information technologies, at least one recent report viewing "communication networks as a platform underpinning our society, supporting a diverse and interwoven range of social, business and community activity" (Johns, 1995). While this may seem like exaggerated hyperbole, of limited relevance to many people, the fact is that the widespread availability of personal computers, coupled with the advent of CD ROMs, virtual reality, and the Internet, is now providing unprecedented access to learning opportunities for an ever wider proportion of the world's population. Along with more familiar technologies such as radio and television, telephone, facsimile, audio and video tapes, teleconferences and interactive video-conferences, these new technologies truly have the potential to change the nature of learning for the future. Accordingly, availability of and familiarity with this technology are likely to be important measures of learning potential, if not of learning performance, in the future.

As mentioned elsewhere in this paper, universities, schools and TAFE have been quick to seize on the potential of these technologies, as have many corporate and government trainers. Indeed, much of the recent writing about the educational use of communication and information technology has been dominated by a concern with how they have extended the 'reach' of providers. However, of even greater interest and relevance is a consideration of how they can empower potential learners to obtain what they need at a time and in a form that is best for them. In other words, technologies that have been developed, refined and exploited by providers will almost certainly have as-yet unforeseen consequences for learners themselves.

Basically, there are three principal aspects of these technologies which have salience for informal and self-directed learning. These are: the widespread availability of personal computers, the development of relatively inexpensive software including CD ROMs which contain huge volumes of interesting and easily searched information, and the 'rollout' of communications infrastructure, including fibre-optic cable and satellite communications which will enable people in the even the most remote locations to access information 'as needed.'

With respect to personal computers, it is presently estimated that between 30 and 40% of Australian households currently have access to personal computers, with an even higher percentage in the workplace. As the cost of the technology is constantly dropping, this figure may be expected to rise so that eventually computers will be as ubiquitous as the telephone is today. Although many of these computers are used solely or largely for games, recent figures indicate that 262,000 Australian households have modems and therefore could potentially enjoy Internet access. Indeed latest industry estimates show Australia's Internet population to be 600,000 "one of the highest per capita in the world, and growing at 10 to 15% per month. As in other countries, the profile of Internet users is also shifting to become more gender balanced and older" (Morris, 1996, p. 10). This phenomenon is very significant because, armed with a modem and Internet access, people and businesses in even the smallest and most remote locations will soon have access to the latest and best of information. In this regard, one interesting innovation in Australia has been the establishment of 'telecottages' or 'telecentres' in many rural areas (Crellin, 1994; 1995; Horner & Reeve, 1991). These shopfront community facilities are modelled on similar counterparts in Europe, especially Sweden. They are designed to provide people in remote locations with access to employment, social and learning opportunities comparable to those available to people in metropolitan areas. In Western Australia, the government-sponsored open learning network is based on the telecottages, and other states have more or less comparable networks of community-based learning facilities which have great potential for all forms of learning for both accredited and unaccredited purposes.

As mentioned above, the rapid development of CD ROMs and other interactive software is also having a marked impact on technology-linked learning. Many of the households which own computers have these linked to CD ROM drivers, and the veritable explosion in the range of informative and entertaining Compact Disks on the market is bringing untold learning opportunities to the fingertips of young and old Australians alike (Gates, 1995).

Finally, the development of communications infrastructure, which is enormously expensive, is proceeding very rapidly in Australia at present. Australia already has one of the world's most advanced and sophisticated telecommunications systems, and, according to Morris in his paper on 'Newspapers and the New Information Media';

> The two major Pay-TV groups, Foxtel and Optus Vision, are waging a fierce race to roll-out high capacity cable to claim as much territory for themselves as they can as quickly as possible. Telstra, as one half of the Foxtel joint venture, says it will have passed one million households by the end of 1995 and four million by the turn of the century. Optus Vision recently announced it was speeding up its program, saying it will be accessible to more than two million homes by the end of 1996. Allowing for some duplication, that should give at least half of Australia's six million homes access to high capacity telecommunications facilities by the end of 1996. (Morris, 1996, p. 10)

Overall, the new technologies provide a potentially radically different dispensation for learners of all ages, and the penetration of this technology will almost certainly prove to be a major distinguishing feature of the learning societies of the twenty-first century.

4. Towards a Learning Society: Australia's Report Card

It is difficult, if not impossible, to evaluate the extent to which a complex, diverse, multicultural and geographically dispersed society such as Australia is moving towards the ideal of becoming a learning society. It is especially difficult to avoid generalisations which might effectively ignore the experiences of particular groups within the population who are marginalised in some way from the mainstream such as the elderly, the remote or isolated, the socially and economically disadvantaged or those who do not speak the dominant language. Yet, despite these many difficulties, there is pleasing evidence that Australia, perhaps more than many other countries, does provide extensive learning opportunities to many of those who want them.

In preparing this summary, it seems useful to distinguish between those initiatives that are designed to develop or enhance lifelong learning competence and attitudes, and those that are supposed to provide opportunities to pursue lifelong learning. Accordingly, this two-way split will be used in discussing the Australian situation.

4.1. Developing lifelong learners

There is no national policy on the development of lifelong learning, and there is, as yet, no national curriculum at the school level. Nevertheless, documentation provided for this study by State Ministries of Education, the technical and further education sector and universities suggests that most of the states and territories, which have responsibility for the provision of basic education, seem to view it as a fundamental part of their mandate to provide the foundation upon which later learning may be based. However, explicit commitment in public documentation seems to decrease as the level of formal education increases, with each sector implying that responsibility for the development of lifelong learners more properly lies at the preceding level in the educational spectrum. Thus, as mentioned in the body of the paper, there seems to be a tacit assumption that the foundations are actually laid principally in early childhood; certainly the extent to which people choose to continue learning throughout life is commonly, though not always, a reflection of their early experiences, even before pre-school. While this might be true of the motivation to learn and, to an extent, of the ability to do so, there is no reason to believe that those learning skills and habits acquired in childhood and youth will serve for a lifetime: "it is not realistic to expect that initial education can succeed in conferring all the necessary qualifications young people need in order to cope adequately with problems that may arise at different stages of the lifespan" (Tuijnman & van der Kamp, 1992, p. 6). The very features that make continuing learning a necessity in the first place also render it necessary to continue learning about learning (Candy, 1990).

From pre-school onwards, through elementary and secondary school, students are progressively exposed to ideas and experiences which, taken together, should equip them for a lifetime of learning. However, in practice, two things happen. First, many students have such bad experiences in school that they are 'turned off' further formal education. The recent National Board of Employment, Education and Training paper entitled Lifelong Learning: Key Issues lays the blame very largely on assessment practices and in particular the dominance of "the scaling practices associated with tertiary entrance selection [which] may affect student choices regarding further education and training and their attitude to learning for its own sake" (1996, p. 10).

Second, and for many young people more important, other social and cultural factors intervene, which influence their attitudes not only towards learning, but toward the future itself. A number of recent national and international reports have found that today's generation of teenagers is characterised by what Eckersley calls a "deep shift" (1996, pp. 7-8) between their positive and negative attitudes towards the future. On the one hand, says Eckersley, drawing on a recent book by Douglas

Rushkoff, Playing the Future, "they are the first global generation: confident, optimistic, well-informed, educated and technologically sophisticated. They are self-reliant (even self-contained), streetwise, enterprising and creative, fast on their feet, keeping their options open." On the other hand, however, they are "deeply cynical, alienated, pessimistic, disillusioned and disengaged. Many are confused and angry, uncertain of what the future holds and what society expects of them. While they may continue to work within 'the system,' they no longer believe in it, or are willing to serve in it" (Eckersley, 1996, p. 7). It is clear that for many of the young people who are so seriously disillusioned, the decision about whether to engage in lifelong learning may depend more on their view about life than on the availability or otherwise of opportunities to do so.

After the end of ten years of schooling, at the age of 15, students in Australia are free to join the workforce (if they can obtain a job), enter a vocational college, or continue with a further two years of secondary schooling, perhaps with a view to entering university. In each of these situations, there are abundant opportunities for continuing learning; however, in general, very little attention is given to the continuing development of lifelong learning capabilities. Certainly few Australian employers and professions seem to offer deliberate opportunities for developing learning-to-learn skills, although they may well provide opportunities for lifelong learning itself.

Much the same situation obtains within formal education. By the time people have spent ten years in school, they are generally expected to have developed their skills as learners, and there are few chances for them to become better learners, except incidentally. There are, however, some exceptions to this. Many vocational colleges (and, increasingly, a number of universities) do provide learning skills programs for their students both as 'stand-alone' entities and embedded within the teaching of disciplinary content. A recent national study of Australian higher education (Candy, Crebert & O'Leary, 1994) found that at least some Australian universities were in fact actively striving to develop the learning capacities of their undergraduate students. This, however, is by no means universal, and the experience for most Australians is that the opportunity to increase their competence as learners - unless through their own efforts - is restricted to the years of compulsory schooling.

4.2. Supporting Lifelong Learning

If the early years of formal education are devoted to laying the foundations for a lifetime of learning, then it is in the higher echelons of formal education, in the systems of continuing and further education, and in the adult and community education sector that such skills and attitudes are actually used to engage in lifelong learning. It is really after the years of compulsory education that a nation's commitment to lifelong learning for its citizens is actually put to the test.

As mentioned in the body of the paper, the formal education system certainly provides opportunities for those with appropriate qualifications to continue their education. In the past few years, there has been considerable attention to increasing the accessibility of these courses and programs of study, to allow as wide a cross section of the population as possible to participate. Mature-age entry schemes, articulation with other awards, a range of forms of study support, increased access to open learning through flexible delivery, and various schemes for the recognition of both credentialled and uncredentialled prior learning have combined to dramatically enhance study opportunities for many Australian who in previous generations would have been unable to consider the possibility of obtaining a higher education. Yet, despite the many strengths and advantages of Australia's approach to and provision for continuing learning, the picture is not without its dark spots, and, in the following table, an attempt has been made to identify a number of both positive and negative factors which provide a more balanced picture of where we are, and how far we have to go.

Lifelong Learning in the Balance

Favouring	Against
High levels of general literacy. Australia has an excellent compulsory education system, with very high levels of general literacy. It also has extensive programs of adult literacy in the workplace and in the general community. Together these circumstances enable most people to participate in continuing learning if they choose to do so.	***Hopelessness and loss of self-esteem.*** In a recent international survey, young Australians were found to have low expectations about their futures. With the restructuring of the economy, many face the prospect of long periods of unemployment. Teenage suicide rates are alarmingly high in Australia; a circumstance which hardly bodes well for a positive attitude towards lifelong learning.
Well developed information infrastructure. Access to information and to learning resources is a key element in lifelong learning. Australia has a highly developed public library system, and, since the deregulation of telecommunications, an increasingly sophisticated and flexible information and communications infrastructure.	***Limited provision for workplace learning in many small businesses.*** The Australian economy is dominated by small businesses. According to a recent study on 'What Triggers Training' undertaken by the Research Centre for Vocational Education and Training at the University of Technology Sydney, these commonly provide significantly fewer opportunities for either on-the-job or off-the-job training and education than do governments departments or larger enterprises.
Improved articulation of education and training. In the past few years, there has been a distinct improvement in the articulation of different levels of formal education in Australia, as well as greater flexibility in the granting of recognition for prior experiential learning. Both of these provide a positive context for the extension of lifelong learning opportunities.	***Increased vocationalism.*** The major policy thrust of the newly-elected Federal Government seems to be to remove special programs and opportunities for targeted groups, and to increase the utilitarian emphasis on education for vocational purposes rather than for personal enrichment or societal enhancement. Allied with this, is the excessive reliance on Year 12 tertiary entrance scores, which may distort the learning of at least some young people who do not anticipate further formal study.
Enthusiastic support and innovation in some areas. As is evident from this paper, there are a number of excellent policy initiatives and practices, some of them within individual institutions, states or territories, and some across state or territory boundaries but within specific sectors of education and training.	***Lack of an overarching policy framework.*** What is needed is a comprehensive, integrated, cross-sectoral policy framework which emphasises Australians' right to learn throughout life. Linked to this is the need for mechanisms for sharing good practice among providers, as well as advisory and brokering services to inform members of the community about learning opportunities available to them.
Active commitment by the professions. Many of the professions in Australia have developed policy statements and accreditation guidelines which recognise the need for continuing learning in practice. By focussing on lifelong learning, these guidelines are valuable to members of the profession, as well as to the colleges and universities which prepare graduates for life in the profession.	***Inadequate provision for the elderly.*** Although there is already a range of adult education programs for older people, it is inadequate to the present, and grossly inadequate to the future, demand. Given the rising standard of general education, and increased life expected in coming decades.

For those who are unable or unwilling to study at university, the vocational education and training sector has made quite spectacular advances in terms of interlacing work and learning, and providing pathways into formal education. Through a range of initiatives, vocational education providers have brought lifelong learning opportunities within the reach of large sections of the post-school population, and for many people, study at a TAFE Institute - whether through face-to-face attendance or at a distance - has provided an access point into further formal study. Also, there is an intriguing pattern whereby many university graduates have chosen to utilise TAFE courses in order to obtain practical or applied skills, with the result that lifelong learning for some people means 'going back' to study at a lower level in the education hierarchy.

Moving away from formal education, Australia has a rich, complex and diverse pattern of post-school learning opportunities, many of which are available without regard to people's previous educational attainments and in spite of geographic location, socio-economic status or any form of disadvantage. Much of this learning is work-related, and it takes place in the context of a workplace; however, much of it is personal, social or cultural and this can only lead to a more vibrant economy and a better informed and more enlightened community.

5. Conclusion

Some years ago, Australia was described by one of its best known authors and social commentators, as 'The Lucky Country,' (Horne, 1964), referring principally (and somewhat ironically) to its rich resource base and many natural endowments. While this is still broadly true, in the turbulent and competitive global economy in which we live and work, it is also vital to be, as a former Minister of Employment, Education and Training put it, a 'Clever County' (Dawkins, 1990). At the heart of this vision of Australia must be a concern with lifelong learning, not just for a few, but for everyone. This is the challenge, and although as a society we have made significant progress towards it, there is little room for complacency.

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APPENDIX 1

EDUCATION - NATIONAL SUMMARY
(AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1996, P. 72)

Education — national summary

PARTICIPATION	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
School students	'000	3 006	3 001	3 005	3 022	3 031	3 042	3 075	3 099	3 098	3 099	3 109
TAFE students(a)	'000	859	887	937	952	932	967	986	1 043	1 121	1 118	nya
Higher education students	'000	370	390	394	421	441	485	535	559	576	585	604
Year 12 apparent retention rate	%	46.4	48.7	53.1	57.6	60.3	64.0	71.3	77.1	76.6	74.6	72.2
Aged 15–24 (of all aged 15–24)												
Participating in any education	%	39.5	40.1	41.9	43.5	44.9	45.5	47.6	49.1	48.2	48.4	47.9
Participating in TAFE	%	8.9	8.4	8.7	9.6	9.7	9.2	9.6	9.9	9.5	8.6	8.9
Participating in higher education	%	8.0	8.0	8.8	9.2	10.8	12.0	12.7	13.7	13.1	14.9	14.2
Women aged 15–24 participating in tertiary education (of all tertiary students aged 15–24)	%	na	42.4	45.1	45.7	43.9	46.4	46.6	47.2	48.2	48.9	46.7

ATTAINMENT	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	199
Aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications (of all aged 15–64)	%	na	na	na	na	39.2	39.7	40.8	41.7	(b)39.1	(b)38.8	(b)40.6
Degree or higher	%	na	na	na	na	7.9	8.4	9.0	9.6	10.1	11.5	11.9
Skilled vocational qualification	%	na	na	na	na	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.7	13.6	11.5	12.6
Undergraduate or associate diploma	%	na	na	na	na	18.3	18.3	18.7	19.0	(b)9.0	(b)8.4	(b)8.8
Basic vocational qualification	%	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	(b)6.4	(b)7.4	(b)7.3
Aged 15–64 and did not complete highest level of secondary school (of all aged 15–64)	%	na	na	na	na	39.7	37.4	36.0	34.3	(b)37.3	(b)37.8	(b)36.3
Women aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications (of all aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications)	%	na	na	na	na	41.6	42.4	43.0	43.6	42.6	44.0	44.4

EDUCATION AND WORK	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)												
With degree or higher	%	na	na	na	na	2.4	3.2	3.9	4.3	4.3	4.7	3.6
With skilled vocational qualification	%	na	na	na	na	3.3	4.2	7.1	9.6	8.8	6.3	6.0
With undergraduate or associate diploma(b)	%	na	na	na	na	5.0	4.6	7.4	8.1	9.3	8.1	5.4
With basic vocational qualification(b)	%	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	9.3	8.3	7.8
Without post-school qualifications(b)	%	na	na	na	na	8.6	8.2	12.0	13.4	13.7	12.6	10.7
Apprentices	'000	128.6	130.4	138.9	147.1	151.7	161.0	151.0	142.9	r122.7	r123.3	na

SERVICES	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
School student/teacher ratio	no.	15.3	15.3	15.1	15.1	15.3	15.3	15.4	15.3	15.3	15.5	15.4
Government schools	no.	7 561	7 589	7 575	7 535	7 513	7 490	7 470	7 448	7 366	7 159	7 122
Non-government schools	no.	2 502	2 496	2 504	2 519	2 523	2 517	2 510	2 509	2 499	2 520	2 526

EXPENDITURE	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Govt expenditure on education (of GDP)	%	5.4	5.4	5.2	4.9	r4.6	r4.6	5.0	r5.3	5.3	5.2	5.0
Total expenditure on education (of GDP)	%	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.4	r5.1	r5.1	r5.6	r5.9	r6.0	5.8	5.6

(a) Data prior to 1994 are not strictly comparable to more recent data due to changes in scope and collection methodology

(b) Prior to 1993 the undergraduate or associate diploma category included basic vocational qualifications and other certificates/diplomas, some of which are no longer classified as post-school qualifications

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Reference periods: Schools data are at July. TAFE data comprise enrolments in the calendar year to 31 December. Higher education data are at 31 March from 1989; prior to that the reference date was 30 April. Apprentice data are at 30 June. Expenditure data are for financial years.

EDUCATION - DEFINITIONS AND REFERENCES
(AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1996, P. 74)

Education — definitions and references

Apprentice — a person who has entered into a legal contract with an employer to serve a period of training for the purpose of attaining tradesperson's status in a recognised trade classification. Before signing indentures, the apprentice generally serves a probationary period, usually 3 months.
Reference: Vocational Employment, Education and Training Advisory Committee *Apprenticeship statistics*

Associate diploma — course lasting from one to two years full-time (or equivalent) for those wanting to work in advanced trades, technical, or associate professional occupations.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Basic vocational qualification — course lasting from one semester to one year full-time (or equivalent) providing practical skills and knowledge for those wanting to work at the operative level in various fields. Prior to 1993, basic vocational qualifications were included with undergraduate or associate diplomas.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Degree or higher — a bachelor degree (including honours), a graduate or post-graduate diploma, master's degree or a doctorate.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Did not complete highest level of secondary school — a person without post-school qualifications who did not complete the highest level of secondary schooling available at the time they left school.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Full-time equivalent (FTE) — a measure of the total level of staff resources used. The FTE of a full-time staff member is equal to 1.0. The calculation of FTE for part-time staff is based on the proportion of time worked compared to that worked by full-time staff performing similar duties.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

GDP (gross domestic product) — the current price measure which is the sum of factor incomes, consumption of fixed capital (depreciation) and net indirect taxes.
Reference: Expenditure on Education, Australia (5510.0)

Government expenditure on education — government final expenditure, personal benefit payments, advances to persons for the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) and other government expenditure.
Reference: Expenditure on Education, Australia (5510.0)

Government school — one administered by the Department of Education in each state/territory.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

Higher education student — a person for whom there is a full-time, part-time or external enrolment in a course at a higher education institution at the reference date.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001); Department of Employment, Education and Training *Selected Higher Education Statistics*

Non-government school — one not administered by a Department of Education but including special schools administered by government authorities other than state/territory education departments.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

Post-school qualification — any qualification gained by a person after leaving school such as a trade qualification, certificate, diploma, or degree.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

School — an educational institution which provides primary or secondary education on a full-time daily basis, or by radio or correspondence.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

School student — a person who is enrolled in a school and active in a course of study, other than pre-school or technical and further education (TAFE) courses.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

School student/teacher ratio — number of school students divided by full-time equivalent teachers in both primary and secondary schools.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

Skilled vocational qualification — course lasting two to four years, and typically involving some on-the-job training, for those wanting to work in a specific vocation, recognised trade or craft that requires a high degree of skill in a range of related activities. Prior to 1993, skilled vocational qualifications referred to trade qualifications only.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

TAFE student — a person for whom there is a full-time or part-time vocational stream enrolment in a college of technical and further education (TAFE) for the reference year.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education and Training *Selected TAFE Statistics*

Tertiary education — education provided by any institution offering post-school courses. Includes TAFE and higher education systems.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Total expenditure on education — government expenditure on education plus private final expenditure on education.
Reference: Expenditure on Education, Australia (5510.0)

Undergraduate diploma — course lasting three years full-time (or equivalent) for those wanting to work as professionals or associate professionals.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Unemployment rate — the number of unemployed persons in any group expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Year 12 apparent retention rate — the percentage of full-time students of a given cohort group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling to Year 12.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

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NUMBER OF STUDENTS (a): BY CATEGORY OF SCHOOL, SEX AND LEVEL/YEAR OF EDUCATION, JULY 1993
(AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1994, P. 310)

9.3 NUMBER OF STUDENTS(a): BY CATEGORY OF SCHOOL, SEX AND LEVEL/YEAR OF EDUCATION, JULY 1993

Level/year of education	*Government schools*	*Non-government schools*				*All schools*		
		Anglican	*Catholic*	*Other*	*Total*	*Males*	*Females*	*Persons*
Primary								
Pre-Year 1(b)	134,973	2,152	36,825	8,319	47,296	93,391	88,878	182,269
Year 1	191,806	2,815	48,383	11,454	62,652	130,978	123,480	254,458
Year 2	192,425	2,899	48,030	11,358	62,287	130,605	124,107	254,712
Year 3	191,225	3,312	48,765	11,491	63,568	129,958	124,835	254,793
Year 4	189,549	3,619	48,616	11,592	63,827	129,715	123,661	253,376
Year 5	189,299	4,609	49,329	12,337	66,275	131,038	124,536	255,574
Year 6	185,157	5,064	48,568	12,406	66,038	128,499	122,696	251,195
Year 7 *(Qld,SA,WA,NT)*	70,979	2,130	14,407	5,003	21,540	47,651	44,868	92,519
Ungraded	14,012	16	648	2,494	3,158	10,546	6,624	17,170
Total primary	*1,359,425*	*26,616*	*343,571*	*86,454*	*456,641*	*932,381*	*883,685*	*1,816,066*
Secondary								
Year 7 *(NSW,Vic.,Tas.,ACT)*	103,319	5,955	33,280	10,892	50,127	78,587	74,859	153,446
Year 8	163,264	10,056	48,757	18,183	76,996	123,283	116,977	240,260
Year 9	163,014	10,232	47,557	18,047	75,836	121,969	116,881	238,850
Year 10	159,506	10,386	46,645	18,173	75,204	119,562	115,148	234,710
Year 11	141,573	10,565	40,976	17,558	69,099	104,393	106,279	210,672
Year 12	122,800	9,881	37,741	16,494	64,116	90,039	96,877	186,916
Ungraded	15,155	25	760	1,515	2,300	10,416	7,039	17,455
Total secondary	*868,631*	*57,100*	*255,716*	*100,862*	*413,678*	*648,249*	*634,060*	*1,282,309*
Total	**2,228,056**	**83,716**	**599,287**	**187,316**	**870,319**	**1,580,630**	**1,517,745**	**3,098,375**

(a) As from 1990 students attending special schools have not been identified separately and have been allocated to either primary or secondary level of education. (b) Pre-year 1 comprises kindergarten in New South Wales and Australian Capital Territory; preparatory in Victoria and Tasmania; reception in South Australia; and transition in the Northern Territory.

Source: Schools, Australia (4221.0).

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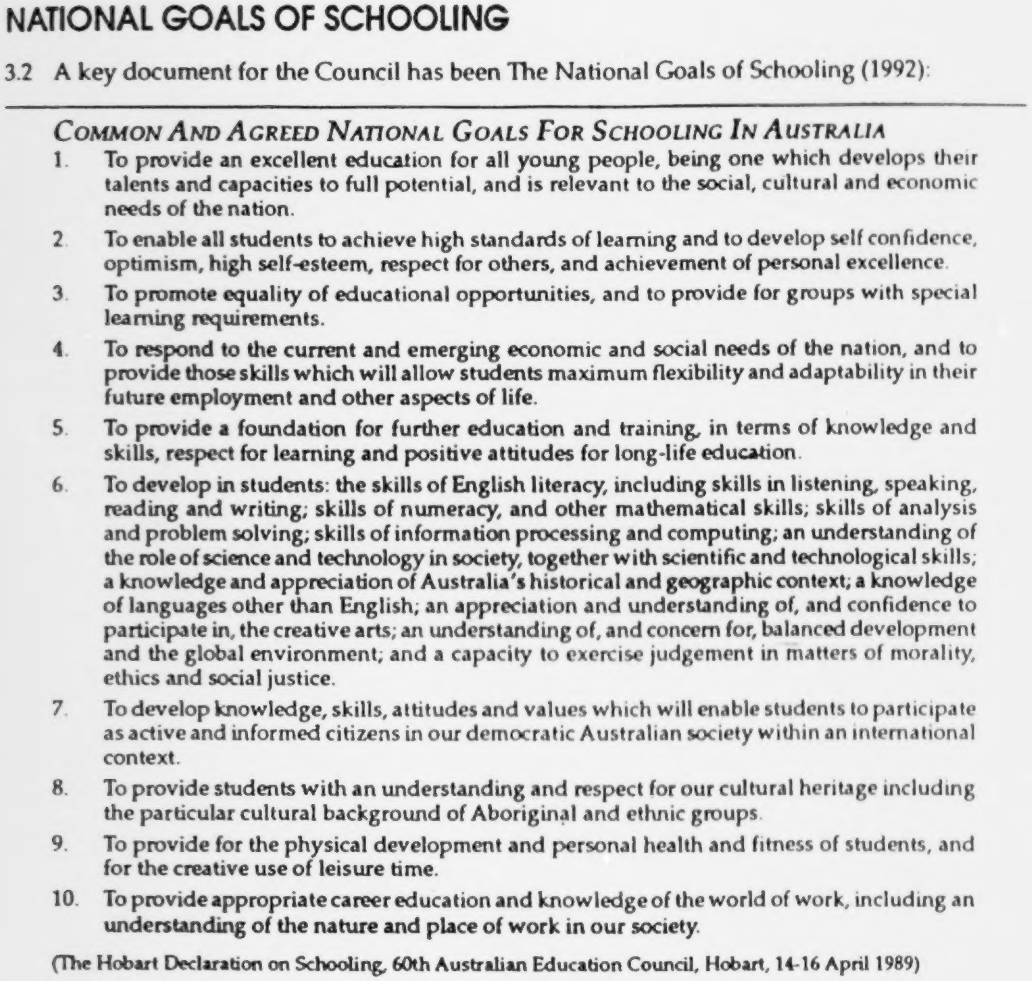
APPENDIX 4

NATIONAL GOALS OF SCHOOLING
(AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY MINISTERIAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON PUBLIC EDUCATION, 1994, P. 9)



NATIONAL GOALS OF SCHOOLING

3.2 A key document for the Council has been The National Goals of Schooling (1992):

COMMON AND AGREED NATIONAL GOALS FOR SCHOOLING IN AUSTRALIA

1. To provide an excellent education for all young people, being one which develops their talents and capacities to full potential, and is relevant to the social, cultural and economic needs of the nation.
2. To enable all students to achieve high standards of learning and to develop self confidence, optimism, high self-esteem, respect for others, and achievement of personal excellence.
3. To promote equality of educational opportunities, and to provide for groups with special learning requirements.
4. To respond to the current and emerging economic and social needs of the nation, and to provide those skills which will allow students maximum flexibility and adaptability in their future employment and other aspects of life.
5. To provide a foundation for further education and training, in terms of knowledge and skills, respect for learning and positive attitudes for long-life education.
6. To develop in students: the skills of English literacy, including skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing; skills of numeracy, and other mathematical skills; skills of analysis and problem solving; skills of information processing and computing; an understanding of the role of science and technology in society, together with scientific and technological skills; a knowledge and appreciation of Australia's historical and geographic context; a knowledge of languages other than English; an appreciation and understanding of, and confidence to participate in, the creative arts; an understanding of, and concern for, balanced development and the global environment; and a capacity to exercise judgement in matters of morality, ethics and social justice.
7. To develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which will enable students to participate as active and informed citizens in our democratic Australian society within an international context.
8. To provide students with an understanding and respect for our cultural heritage including the particular cultural background of Aboriginal and ethnic groups.
9. To provide for the physical development and personal health and fitness of students, and for the creative use of leisure time.
10. To provide appropriate career education and knowledge of the world of work, including an understanding of the nature and place of work in our society.

(The Hobart Declaration on Schooling, 60th Australian Education Council, Hobart, 14-16 April 1989)

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TECHNICAL AND FURTHER EDUCATION: ALL STUDENTS BY STREAM AND FIELD OF STUDY, 1992
(AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1994, P. 316)

9.8 TECHNICAL AND FURTHER EDUCATION: ALL STUDENTS BY STREAM AND FIELD OF STUDY, 1992

Stream		*01*	*02*	*03*	*04*	*05*	*06*	*07*	*08*	*09*	*10*	*11*	*12*	*Net(a)*
1000	**Recreation, leisure**	11,027	15,670	166,882	36,339	753	8,827	104,161	1,699	16,577	634	31,892	308,703	701,396
2100	**Basic employment skills**	14,561	1,694	12,851	15,491	3,698	3,729	6,519	329	2,477	—	6,254	117,862	182,074
2200	**Educational preparation**	290	270	5,485	1,713	78	1,010	2,132	5	1,520	—	346	79,003	91,058
3100	**Operatives: initial**	14,006	13,906	18,972	74,853	2,099	27,324	17,774	426	22,792	585	35,922	10,877	230,828
3211	**Recognised trades: part exempt**	55	1,999	42	63	—	1,938	—	—	—	—	1,116	8,513	13,617
3212	**Recognised trades: complete**	5,463	26,565	560	—	—	60,614	446	—	—	—	17,714	579	111,597
3221	**Other skills: part exempt**	2,967	1,070	1,308	26,575	541	7,240	3,761	—	156	27	4,369	12,356	59,582
3222	**Other skills: complete**	11,275	1,010	11,988	35,270	92	14,184	4,163	865	1,892	325	11,689	1,919	93,656
3300	**Trade technician/supervisory**	6,326	8,788	7,874	46,367	2	21,480	4,658	116	6,668	194	13,442	551	115,725
3400	**Para-professional technician**	504	1,757	1,674	9,590	—	2,669	699	199	5,421	—	57	—	22,211
3500	**Para-professional higher technician**	2,187	6,325	9,805	53,385	2,362	20,168	8,443	3,342	6,699	165	4,449	3	115,902
3600	**Professional**	—	292	3,093	649	—	72	213	—	18	—	795	—	5,131
4100	**Operatives: post initial**	3,837	1,371	2,389	4,512	319	2,853	718	10	510	—	1,206	8,038	25,647
4200	**Trades/other skills: post initial**	5,922	8,676	4,382	21,079	4,886	24,769	3,070	778	3,358	—	13,024	1,034	89,481
4300	**Trade technician/supervisory: post initial**	1,401	212	92	1,102	294	5,019	178	—	1,500	—	319	—	10,102
4400	**Para-professional technician: post initial**	28	20	139	138	23	162	18	—	123	—	3	—	654
4500	**Para-professional higher technician: post initial**	—	82	277	314	170	2,022	382	—	190	—	554	40	3,990
Total net(a) streams 2100–4500		*65,726*	*70,790*	*77,633*	*272,573*	*14,412*	*179,321*	*51,335*	*5,990*	*52,095*	*1,280*	*105,476*	*229,277*	*1,042,547*
Total net(a) all streams		**76,753**	**86,460**	**244,515**	**308,912**	**15,165**	**188,148**	**155,496**	**7,689**	**68,672**	**1,914**	**137,368**	**537,980**	**1,743,943**

01 Land & Marine Resources, Animal Husbandry; 02 Architecture, Building; 03 Art, Humanities and Social Sciences; 04 Business Administration, Economics; 05 Education; 06 Engineering, Surveying; 07 Health, Community Services; 08 Law, Legal Studies; 09 Science; 10 Veterinary Science, Animal Care; 11 Services, Hospitality, Transportation; 12 TAFE Multi-field Education.

(a) Net totals are less than the sums of the individual items because some students enrol in more than one stream (field of study) in the same study (stream), but only counted once in the total.

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training 'Selected TAFE Statistics, 1992'.

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HIGHER EDUCATION: ALL STUDENTS BY LEVEL OF COURSE AND FIELD OF STUDY, 1992 (AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1994, P. 318)

9.9 HIGHER EDUCATION: ALL STUDENTS BY LEVEL OF COURSE AND FIELD OF STUDY, 1992

Level of course	*Agriculture, animal husbandry*	*Architecture, building*	*Arts, humanities and social sciences*	*Business administration, economics*	*Education*	*Engineering and surveying*	*Health*	*Law, legal studies*	*Science*	*Veterinary science*	*Non-award courses*	*Total*
Higher doctorate	—	—	14	—	94	3	145	2	13	1	—	272
Ph.D	529	157	3,302	731	1,079	1,562	1,783	153	4,160	167	—	13,623
Master's by research	426	263	3,037	634	1,344	1,423	880	210	2,102	72	—	10,391
Master's by course work	168	676	5,016	9,157	5,974	1,967	2,710	1,279	2,272	56	—	29,275
Postgraduate qualification/preliminary	24	101	692	665	1,183	98	435	32	576	4	—	3,810
Graduate (post) diploma — new area	361	370	4,245	5,684	8,011	1,085	1,935	685	3,401	6	—	25,783
Graduate (post) diploma — extension area	73	398	1,819	2,350	4,497	743	1,951	841	1,395	9	—	14,076
Graduate certificate	3	—	275	770	739	92	122	57	119	—	—	2,177
Bachelor's postgraduate	—	304	661	—	2,646	28	5	404	—	—	—	4,048
Bachelor's honours	74	79	4,079	845	299	744	287	243	2,596	29	—	9,275
Bachelor's pass	5,039	9,311	97,021	93,848	43,244	33,563	46,806	13,354	60,522	1,338	—	404,046
Diploma	189	—	736	84	7,018	50	9,065	—	299	—	—	17,441
Associate diploma	3,543	235	3,367	2,287	1,484	2,138	982	502	2,857	—	—	17,395
Other award courses	—	—	15	33	1	58	5	239	25	—	—	376
Enabling courses	62	—	761	16	478	45	70	—	353	—	—	1,785
Non-award courses	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5,592	5,592
Total courses	**10,491**	**11,894**	**125,040**	**117,104**	**78,091**	**43,599**	**67,181**	**18,001**	**80,690**	**1,682**	**5,592**	**559,365**

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training 'Selected Higher Education Statistics, 1992'.

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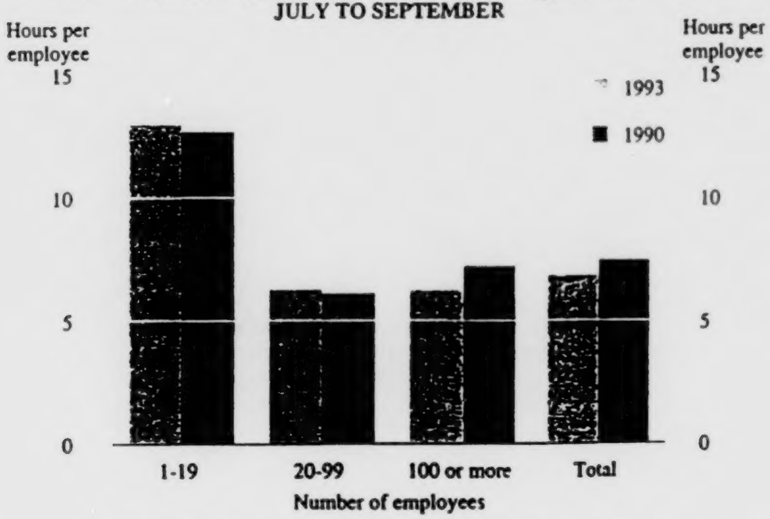
TRAINING EXPENDITURE BY EMPLOYER SIZE, JULY TO SEPTEMBER 1993 (AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1994, P. 200)

6.75 TRAINING EXPENDITURE BY EMPLOYER SIZE, JULY TO SEPTEMBER 1993

	1–19 employees	*20–99 employees*	*100 or more employees*	*Total*
Total training expenditure (% of gross wages and salaries)	1.7	2.7	3.2	2.9
Average training expenditure per employee ($)	86	180	236	192
Average training hours per employee	4.11	5.30	6.17	5.55
Employers reporting training expenditure(a) (% of all employers)	18.0	80.3	97.9	24.6
Total training expenditure ($ million)	112.3	177.8	818.8	1,108.9

(a) The percentage of employers is based on the statistical unit for the survey.
Source: Employer Training Expenditure, Australia (6353.0).

6.76 AVERAGE HOURS SPENT BY EMPLOYEES ON TRAINING JULY TO SEPTEMBER



Source: Employer Training Expenditure, Australia (6353.0).

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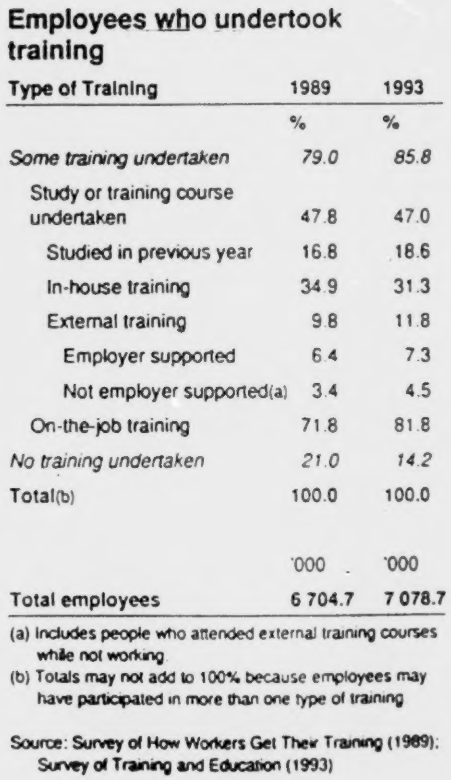
APPENDIX 8

EMPOYEES WHO UNDERTOOK TRAINING
(AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1995, P. 81)



Employees who undertook training

Type of Training	1989	1993
	%	%
Some training undertaken	*79.0*	*85.8*
Study or training course undertaken	47.8	47.0
Studied in previous year	16.8	18.6
In-house training	34.9	31.3
External training	9.8	11.8
Employer supported	6.4	7.3
Not employer supported(a)	3.4	4.5
On-the-job training	71.8	81.8
No training undertaken	*21.0*	*14.2*
Total(b)	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total employees	6 704.7	7 078.7

(a) Includes people who attended external training courses while not working

(b) Totals may not add to 100% because employees may have participated in more than one type of training

Source: Survey of How Workers Get Their Training (1989); Survey of Training and Education (1993)

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APPENDIX 9

REASONS EMPLOYERS PROVIDED TRAINING 1994 (AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1995, P. 83)

Reasons employers provided training(a), 1994

Reasons for training	Small employers	Medium employers	Large employers	Total
	%	%	%	%
Improve work performance of employees	75.6	87.2	95.8	79.8
Enable movement to other positions within organisation(b)	35.2	47.9	68.5	40.6
Multi-skill employees	32.9	51.2	69.3	39.9
Meet Training Guarantee requirements	23.8	46.0	30.7	29.5
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Employers who provided training	61.3	20.9	6.5	88.8
Employers who did not provide training	188.5	1.8	• •	190.4

(a) Refers to training during the 12 months ending February 1994. Percentages do not add to total because employers may have had more than one reason for providing employee training.

(b) Includes employees being trained to move to more highly skilled or responsible positions within the organisation, or to fill identified vacant positions from within the organisation.

Source: Training Practices Survey

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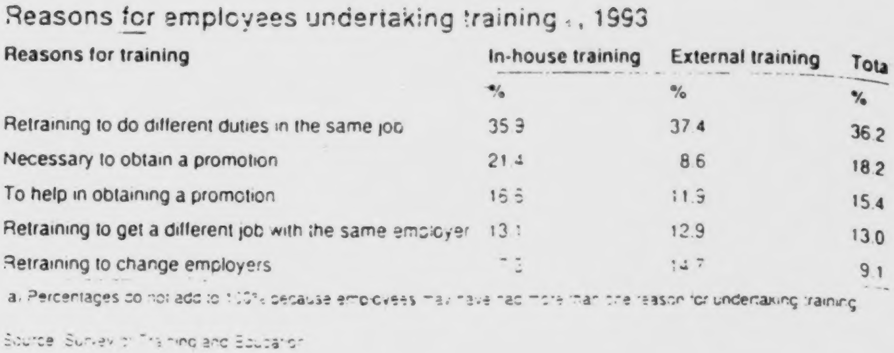
REASONS FOR EMPLOYEES UNDERTAKING TRAINING, 1993
(AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS, 1995, P. 84)



Reasons for employees undertaking training (a), 1993

Reasons for training	In-house training	External training	Total
	%	%	%
Retraining to do different duties in the same job	35.9	37.4	36.2
Necessary to obtain a promotion	21.4	8.6	18.2
To help in obtaining a promotion	16.6	11.9	15.4
Retraining to get a different job with the same employer	13.1	12.9	13.0
Retraining to change employers	7.3	14.7	9.1

a) Percentages do not add to 100% because employees may have had more than one reason for undertaking training

Source: Survey of Training and Education

APPENDIX 11

COMMON AND AGREED GOALS OF THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SECTOR

(AUSTRALIAN NATIONAL TRAINING AUTHORITY, 1994, P. 3)

- ► A national system, with programs and qualifications that are portable across industries and in all States and Territories.
- ► Vocational education and training that reflects industry and enterprise needs and priorities, especially the importance of on-the-job training.
- ► Vocational education and training that meets the needs of individuals, especially employment needs, and supports lifelong learning.
- ► Vocational education and training that is competency-based, and uses national industry and enterprise standards.
- ► An open training market, where public, private and industry providers, who aim for quality and best practice, compete and collaborate to meet the needs of a diverse group of clients.
- ► An efficient and productive network of TAFE providers that can compete for clients in an open training market.
- ► Improved links between schools, higher education and vocational education and training, and greater flexibility for those in training to move between them.
- ► Better access (and improved outcomes) for groups of people who have missed out on training opportunities in the past.

APPENDIX 12

REPORTS WHICH HAVE REFERRED TO LIFELONG LEARNING

Reports which have referred to lifelong learning:

Aulich, Sen. T.G. (1990). *Priorities for reform in higher education.* Report of the Senate Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training.

Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee. (1991). *Foundations for the clever country: Report for the 1992-1994 triennium.* Canberra: Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee.

Baldwin, Hon. P. (1991). *Higher education: Quality and diversity in the 1990s.* Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Butler, A. (1989). *Lifelong education revisited: Australia as a learning society.* Carlton South: Commission for the Future.

Candy, P.C., Crebert, R.G., & O'Leary, J. (1994). *Developing lifelong learners through undergraduate education.* Commissioned Report No. 28. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Higher Education Council. (1990). *Higher education: The challenges ahead.* Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

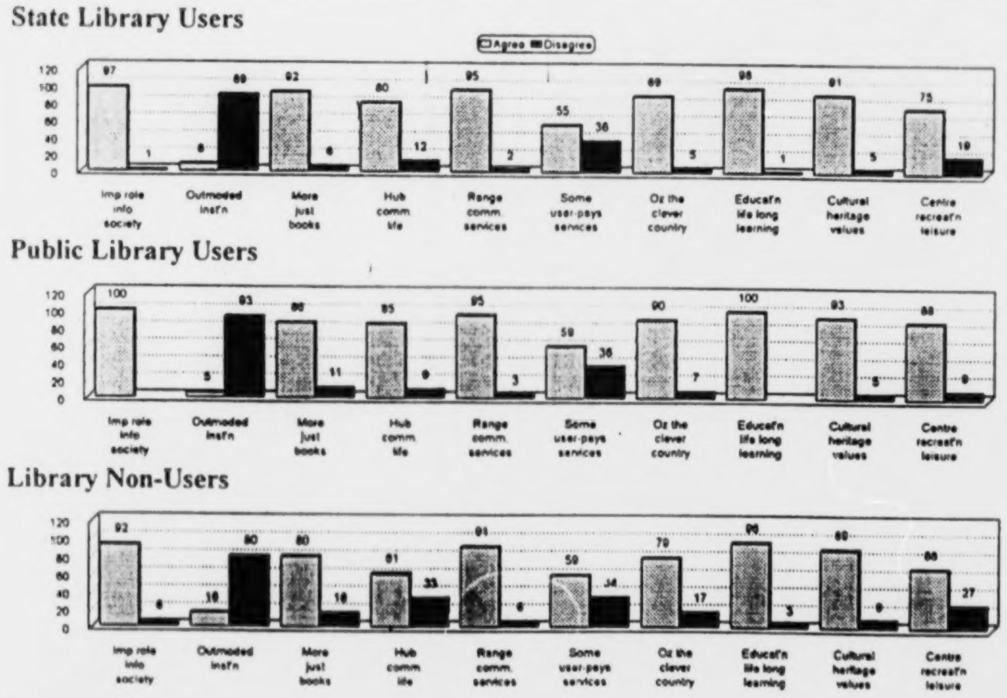
Higher Education Council. (1992). *Higher education: Achieving quality.* Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

National Board of Employment, Education and Training. (1996). *Lifelong learning: Key issues.* Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

APPENDIX 13

ATTITUDES TO LIBRARIES

(MERCER, NAVIGATING THE ECONOMY OF KNOWLEDGE, 1995, p. 46)



State Library Users

Public Library Users

Library Non-Users

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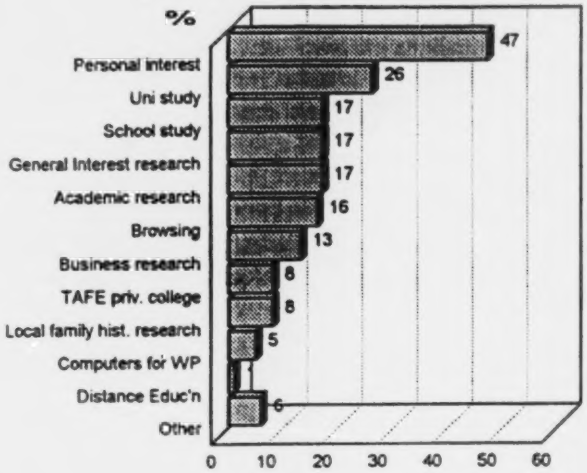
APPENDIX 14

MAIN USES OF STATE AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES
(MERCER, NAVIGATING THE ECONOMY OF KNOWLEDGE, 1995, p. 80)

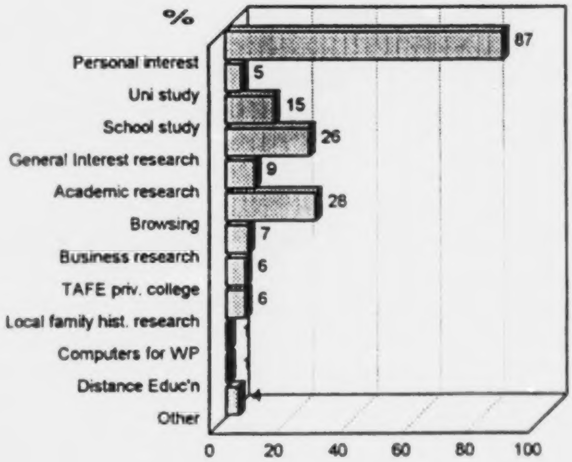
Chart 4a
State Library Users
Main Uses.



Base: (N= 532)

Source: Computer Tabulations p 25

Chart 4b
Public Library Users
Main Uses.



Base: (N= 336)

Source: Computer Tabulations p 30

Chapter 4

STUDY OF TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING : THE CASE OF MEXICO

by AXEL DIDRIKSSON

INTRODUCTION

Mexico has a current population of slightly more than 90 million. As a result of the climax of the Mexican Revolution, which occurred between 1917 and 1920, it was considered that the nation could not enter a new era if no priority were given to the educational level of its population.

With the creation of the *Secretaría de Educación Pública*, or *SEP* (the Ministry of Education) in 1921, the influence of the Mexican Revolution was expressed in the popular, nationalist and humanist composition of the initial educational tasks expressed in the definition of great scholarly projects, consisting of scholarships, autonomous universities, free textbooks, student residences and cafeterias, schools for workers and many other national programs.

After the entire post-revolutionary period, however, and in contrast with what occurred in other social revolutions of this century, in Cuba, China, or the former U.S.S.R. for example, the quantity of people who do not have the minimal educational level has maintained itself at an alarmingly low point. This has occurred not only because of the inaccessibility for all children and adolescents to educational services, but also because not all of those who initiate their basic studies can actually conclude them.

This means that there is an important educational deficit in Mexico, magnified by the new requirements of education and the new perspectives given by permanent education, which postulates a life-long flexible and integral learning system.

A group of indicators that account for the advances and the difficulties produced by the maintenance of the proposal of paving a road towards lifelong learning in the case of Mexico are exposed in this paper. The model given by the UNESCO Institute for Education is fundamentally followed, and the data used here corresponds to the period of the 1990's. This period is characterized as a time of economic and political crises. In the educational sector, this period is reflected by the scarcity of resources, new political decisions, and by overall strategies at the governmental level, which create an educational scenario that is significantly different from that of previous times.

1. The Panorama of Basic Education

If towards the 1990's the increment in participation by the population in elementary education has been rising, the distribution of the population age 15 and older points toward a pyramidal structure with a tendency for polarization. By 1990, only 23% of this group of people completed studies at mid-secondary and secondary levels, and 40% completed studies of mid-basic and elementary school. This means that only one out of every three adults has the opportunity to complete elementary education. During this decade, the last of the twentieth century, there are over 18 million adults in Mexico who have not been able to conclude their six years of basic studies. If to this figure, we add the 2 million children and teenagers aged 6 through 14 who have not completed or have not attended school, we have a total population of over 20 million lagging behind.

These figures give an introductory panorama, which indicates that paving a road towards a system of lifelong learning in Mexico must attend to a situation of deep social inequality, casting a doubt over the efficacy of the policies that have been in effect until now.

1.1. Pre-School Education

With a great deficit of attention for decades, preschool education does not begin to have an important value in the national educational panorama until the 1990's. During the 1970-1971 school-year, enrolments at this level numbered only 400,138 children. During the 1980's, the rate of incorporation was found to be negative in contrast to each previous school-year, going from 0.70 in 1986-1987 to -0.44 in 1987-1988, and -1.18 in 1989-1990.

Beginning in 1990, increase in enrolments begins to recover until reaching an increment of 1.69 over the previous cycle. This signifies an increase in enrolments from 2,734,054 children in 1990 to 3,092,834 in 1995.

The projection for the year 2000 is to cover a demand of 3,700,000 students, with an annual increment of 20%.

Pre-school education is fundamentally an urban phenomenon. The politics of educational modernization have amplified the differences of rural/urban educational coverage in a way that this relation has brought about a slow, negative growth for rural areas, especially due to a reduction in resources, the preferential orientation towards large and medium cities and a drop in teachers wages.

The number of teachers increased at the pre-school level as a whole, from 25 thousand to 98 thousand from 1979 to 1990, yet their incomes did not increase. This situation has not permitted improvement in the conditions of attention to rural and indigenous areas. This fact is illustrated by the average number of students per attendance group, which has decreased in the past few years : from 31 students per group in 1979-1980, to 13 students per group in 1994-1995 at the rural level, whereas the urban level average went from 37 to 25 in the same period.

In Mexico, there are 156,602 localities of which the majority have fewer than 100 inhabitants. In these localities there is a lack of educational services. By 1990 in these small localities, 35% of all children who were old enough to attend school did not do so, whereas the national median in cities of over 100 thousand inhabitants was 6.3%.

The governmental policy respecting this problem proposes that by the year 2000, 65% of the population older than 4 years of age must be in attendance, with only 10% of the population of 5 year-olds not attending school. This policy supposes that the priority is that all children between 3 and 5 years of age can take at least one year of pre-school before beginning elementary education.

Compliance with this goal will be difficult, if consideration is given to the fact that currently, the educational system is covering an increasingly demanding population with a base of teachers, directors and supervisors totaling only 143 thousand, without economic and social stimuli displacing itself to remote urban areas and the poorest of communities.

One of the measures being adopted, and which could lead to the improvement of the quality and coverage of the service, is the proposal of going from a service fundamentally organized by state or particular institutions, to becoming a service that rests on community actions. This would be possible if pre-school education contemplated an adequate articulation between educational affairs and actions, resources, and social groups, so that parents had an access to literacy and to basic education, as well as health services, nutritional support, and correspondingly to the organization of tasks involved in teaching their children.

1.2. Initial Education

The organization of the educational system allows for 3 years for pre-school education, 6 for initial or elementary education, 3 for secondary school and 3 for third level post-secondary education. Starting in 1992, compulsory education must last 9 years by constitutional mandate.

In order to complement formal education, there is no access to organisms or institutions for youth who have reached an important level of coverage, or of impact in the national medium.

During the decade of the eighties, the expansion of education entered a period of contraction, and the system entered a prolonged phase of crisis from 1986 to 1996; with this the educational backlog increased, public resources were reduced and the quality of education deteriorated. Not until the beginning of the nineties, during a short lapse of time, was the increment in enrolment in basic education recovered. The estimated enrolment at this level at the beginning of the 1994-1995 school-year was of 4.5 million students.

However, if consideration is given to the fact that the current established minimum is of nine years of education, the population that has not reached this level contains the adults who did not complete nine years of education as well as the children and teenagers who do not attend school.

Therefore, if the goals of the governmental plans are considered, by the sixties, Mexico should have been a nation with an entirely literate population. However, in the decade of the nineties, the quantity of people who can not read or write is very high : 6 161,662. This figure represents 12.4% of the population older than 15.

The states of Chiapas, Guerrero and Oaxaca have very high levels of illiteracy, between 20 and 30 percent of the population of each state. This fact coincides with the notion that these are states whose population mainly inhabits rural areas and whose work force receives the lowest incomes.

There are 12 states of the nation where 64.4% of the total number of illiterates in the 15 years and older age group are concentrated. Illiterate women who inhabit these states represent 40.5% of the total of people who can not read or write. Illiteracy is, thereby, higher in women than in men.

At an official level, it is considered that the universal nature of elementary school is no longer a problem of supply and demand, of a lack of quality and equity. This signifies that there is a demonstration of social inefficacy by the system to keep those enroled at this level from completing it successfully at some point of their life. The amount of Mexican citizens who find themselves in this condition totals 18,369,210 people, and represents 37% of the respective age group. This condition worsens, as it has been pointed out before, in more than half of the states.

The lagging at the initial elementary level is the component that includes the largest number of Mexicans at the national level and in each state. It is there as well where the strongest inequality is shown between social groups and territorial distribution. This is the most solid argument to demonstrate the failure of the schools to distribute a minimum of education, in order to face the current and future demands of a society that looks to reach lifelong learning.

The policies designed to guarantee access to basic education propose that, by the year 2000, the schooling of the population 15 years of age and older is superior to 7.5 years --in contrast to 6.5 in 1990, and that the indicators of basic education reach the average schooling of 9 years by 2010. This, of course, will not be possible in an extensive form for the sum of all groups and sectors of the population, which is considered difficult to accomplish for at least 30 more years. This refers especially to the smallest and most isolated communities, to which it will be difficult to provide this educational service from the onset. This also includes the migrant and indigenous populations.

In the Program for Educational Development (*Programa de Desarrollo Educativo*) 1995-2000, it is pointed out that, when there are no possibilities of fully attending these groups, there will be an endeavor to guarantee the children and adolescents of scholarly age at least an essential nucleus of knowledge that best corresponds to their necessities, and in effect contributes to raising their living conditions, preparing them to carry on productive labor, to gain new knowledge, and for subsequent preparation.

The concrete goals they propose, for basic education are the following :

- to attend, by the year 2000, groups of the population which currently receive insufficient education, and to increment the graduation rate from the sixth grade at least 10 percent over the 1994-1995 school-year.

- to reach a terminal efficiency of 78.3 percent by the 2000-2001 school-year. This will signify that by then, almost all of the children old enough to finish elementary school will do so, and care will be given to providing them with quality education.

- in secondary school, enrolment will increase by the increment in number of students completing the sixth grade of elementary school, the increase in the supply of services in secondary school, and the decrease of the drop out rate. Therefore, it is estimated that the entrance of students completing elementary school into secondary school will increase from 87.7% in the 1994-1995 school-year, to 92% in the 2000-2001 school-year, and the efficiency rate in secondary school will increase from 75.5% to 81.1% in the same period. In this manner, the number of students completing secondary school will be at least one third larger than in the 1994-1995 school-year.

2. Third Level Post-Scondary Education

In Mexico, what is named *educación media superior* (third level post-secondary education), is divided into three different options : technical and commercial studies, preparatory school or *bachillerato*, and basic teachers school.

Out of the total of individuals of the corresponding age (9,664,403), 57.3% of this group did not attend any of these options, and only 24.9% had finished secondary school and could therefore have the possibility to attend either of the options.

This resulted in that, by the decade of the nineties, the pressure of the demand at this level could only be exerted by one-fourth of the youth aged 15 through 19. Also, the data signals that the opportunities of permanence and completion at this level were lower for women than for men.

The main demand (3/4 of the total) is oriented to the studies of general *bachillerato* and the rest to technical and commercial studies, which are of a low quality and offer little hope in the job market. The latter option has the participation of a female majority.

The *bachillerato* option represents the maximum level of studies for 8.9% of the population of age 15 and older in Mexico. This option concentrates 62% of the enrolment at this level, and its members are mainly men (57.6%).

The *bachillerato* absorbs the majority of secondary school graduates, and its terminal efficiency is estimated around 55 to 60 percent. This signifies that nearly 40% of enrolled students do not conclude their studies in the allotted period of time.

For the 1995-2000 period, enrolment in third level post-secondary education will increase further, due to the increase in the number of students completing secondary school; which is estimated at 1,500,000 for the 1999-2000 school-year and, which means almost 320,000 more students than in the 1994-1995 school-year. Also, it is expected that the absorption of students in the coming years will approach a rate of 90%.

The policies to promote third level post-secondary education are being debated at this time and are highly controversial. It is proposed that by the next few years there should be a development of new models for academic and pedagogical organization, oriented towards lifelong learning. Among these proposals it has been considered to initiate, as a basic priority, a National System for the Formation of Academic Personnel (*Sistema Nacional de Formación del Personal Académico*), as well as the opening of a major amount of educational opportunities.

The opening of these new options will follow the following criteria : a) to do so with quality, and in a place where there is a consistent demand flow ; b) to place an emphasis in the growth of services in the entities where the absorption indexes of third level post-secondary students are inferior to the national average ; c) to discourage the creation of new public institutions where the capacity to absorb the demand exists ; d) to manage the balanced development of educational supply in relation to social necessities and the formative aspirations of the students ; e) to consider the labor markets, the development of professions, the requirements of the productive sector, the technological necessities, as well as the perspectives of regional and local development. In addition, it is proposed that the integral formation of students will be encouraged with these new options, propitiating the achievement of success at the conclusion of their studies, facilitated by their abilities and capacities.

Beginning in June of 1996, a new distanced modality is being proposed. The development of this nature of operation is being planned as a new model of academic organization oriented towards learning as a life-long process, as well as orienting the analysis, interpretation, and proper use of information, instead of its accumulation.

In order to set this modality in movement, the creation of a National Accreditation System (*Sistema Nacional de Acreditación*) has been proposed to formulate a basic frame of learning with the consensus of the principal dependencies of the nation involved in this form of studies; in a way to gather the primordial demands of all bachilleratos, allowing for the validation and confirmation of the different plans and programs with the greatest flexibility. The objective is to ensure the incorporation of all people lagging behind, either totally or partially, or of those who have finished a certain level who desire to continue their studies in institutions of higher education. The National Accreditation System will have to count on pedagogical support which, with all sorts of rigor and consistency, will solve the difficulties in design and the disposition of educational materials in order to maintain a high quality.

With this new modality in the distance, it has been proposed to encourage independent study by the student, the acquisition of cognitive strategies, on top of the base of a flexible option adaptable to the individual rhythm of advance in studies.

3. Changes in The Content, Method, and Quality of Initial Education

The quality of education has become the fundamental orientation of politics in the basic education system in the past few years. The concept of quality is explained as an interrelated concept, which combines elements derived from public politics, from the social and cultural order and from school itself. These combinations are tightly associated to the national historical context and its educational tradition and, therefore, can not be generalized nor be transferred from one nation to another.

On the subject of plans and study programs, it is planned to orient the strengthening of competencies, knowledge and fundamental values in order to accentuate the formative purposes over those that only attend to the acquisition of information. These orientations, however, are currently in an initial stage of formulation and application.

One of the aspects that is emphasized is the acquisition of intellectual competencies, such as reading and writing, formation in mathematics, the recovery of the specific character of the study of history and geography, as well as social studies.

The maintenance of a high degree of adaptability of study plans and programs is proposed, as well as curricular flexibility, and the ample use of media and technologies.

As a primordial and priority matter for the end of the century, however, the government is placing an emphasis on the formation, actualization and excellence in teachers and school directors. This matter has not been at a satisfactory level in the past, and remains unsatisfactory at present. A first step in this direction will be the articulation of the actions of the institutions responsible for the formation and professional development of the educators, under the conception of an integrated system that contemplates the entire gamut of necessities for qualified personnel.

4. Transformation of Tertiary Education

Tertiary education is a highly selective component of the educational system. According to the latest population data (1990), there was a total of 4,104,305 people who had gained access to this segment of the system. In this group of people, only 9% had post graduate studies. Out of this total, however, 67% had completed 4 years or more of studies at a postgraduate level.

In respect to gender distribution, 59% of the population with a bachelor s degree (*licenciatura*) and/or a postgraduate degree is represented by men. However, within the different age groups, the gender distribution does vary. The younger generations have a higher female representation with the gender gap growing along with the increase in age.

In respect to a grouping by academic disciplines, the greatest portion (20%) is occupied by academic administrative disciplines and tourism ; engineering (13%); and health, biomedical, assistance and nutritional sciences (12%). Between these three disciplines is distributed 45% of the population according to interest. The social, political and communicational sciences count for a 10% of the population, a percentage shared by pedagogy. The remaining disciplines count for inferior percentages : art (0.61%) ; mathematics, physics and astronomy (0.78%) ; biology, biochemistry, ecology, and marine sciences (1.2%).

At a postgraduate level, independently from the fact if a degree was or was not obtained, the nation counts with a closed system of barely 350,483 people, of which 60% are male.

Tertiary education, as well as the whole of the formal system, is of a terminus nature in a way that there are no politics or mechanisms for adults lacking a diploma from a previous level to initiate into tertiary level studies.

At the policy-making level, it is planned that for the year 2000, only 400 thousand more students will be attended to in tertiary education, with a 100 percent increment in the number of both postgraduate students and professors. The intention, however, is that the orientation of this increased enrolment will be mainly towards the technological options. Along with this, a group of mechanisms is being started, which tend to develop a national evaluation and accreditation system for the development of both institutions and individuals, in terms of their formation as well as their professional activity in the job market, under the schemes of labor competition and of patterns of excellence based on fulfillment standards and indicators.

Regarding inter-institutional coordination and collaboration, the goal is to reform the standing legislation and to review the planning and evaluation tasks, with an end to conciliate the reduction in the number of discrepancies in study plans and programs, through the definition of common profiles, standards, areas and basic contents, and thereby allow for the diversity in function of local specialization and context.

The principal objective of this coordination, is that of an articulation between third level post-secondary education and tertiary education in a post-secondary educational system.

At the industrial cooperation level, the relations are still incipient and of little impact. Towards the end of the decade of the eighties, the experiences in connections between universities and the productive sector began to multiply. Institutions such as the National Autonomous University of Mexico, UNAM (*Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México*), the Autonomous Metropolitan University, UAM (*Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana*), the National Polytechnical Institute, IPN (*Instituto Politécnico Nacional*), and other universities throughout the national territory, were exploring the possibility of creating links for technical investigation and technological matters, among which stands out the creation of trusts for the connection with industry. By the time of publication, the UNAM has already created the Center for Technological Innovation, or CIT (*Centro para la Innovación Tecnológica*), in order to relate the research made in this university with the industrial firms.

From the onset of these relationships, some of the most significant experiences have been the following :

-RESISTOL-UNIVERSIDAD : in 1978, Resistol Industries (Industrias Resistol S.A.), made the decision to create a research and development group, for which it proceeded to incorporate engineers with postgraduate studies. For this end, the Resistol Area for Corporate Technology (*Area de Tecnología Corporativa*) carried out an agreement with the UAM, the UNAM and the University of Guadalajara so that these universities would be in charge of developing the required industrial researchers. The subscribed agreement lasted five years, and the company invested one million dollars. The axis was to form engineering resources and to carry out polymer research in accordance to international standards and levels.

-RAYCHEM-UAM : in 1988, Raychem Corporation agreed to support a group of colloid physicists from the Division of Basic Sciences and Engineering of the UAM. Raychem is a high technology corporation based in California with distribution operations in Mexico. In the corporate proposal, the company supported an assessor and a postdoctoral student, while the company conducted the research and technological development in its main offices and in several European laboratories.

-CYDSA-UAM : the objective in this case was the development of a technology to eliminate pollution through biological treatment, as well as the formation of human resources in this discipline. The CYDSA strategy consisted in developing, with the support of the university, a specific process to resolve an outlined problem, without the need for creating a priori a permanent group for research and development within the corporation. This same university is engaged in other important experiences with other corporations.

-Other important experiences have concentrated in continuous education programs, especially those generated by UNAM : the creation of technology exchange bureaus, the creation of a Network of Technological Innovation Nuclei (*Red de Núcleos de Innovación Tecnológica*), enterprise hatching programs and units for the transfer of information outside of the university.

At the finance level, the behavior of federal investment towards tertiary education, which is the most important of all (68% of the total and 22% in the public tertiary education institutions), has been erratic. For 1996, while it is being proposed that research and postgraduate studies are strategic tasks for the nation, a cutback in the budget of 2.9% was observed, which can be added to a total 21.25% cutback in 1995.

For the whole of tertiary education, the sum of money during the nineties has not increased in a substantial manner, nor has it been equivalent to the expansion of the existing demand. The sum total is 0.4% of the GDP.

5. Adult Education

In Mexico, adult education is defined as that destined to the population aged 15 and older, who has not studied or concluded basic studies. To assist this segment of the population, the National Education Program (*Programa Nacional de Educación*) states that changes must be prompted so that the educational systems acquire the capacity to keep educating the people during their adult stage, and to transform the disposition of people towards learning as a permanent process and way of life. The education will have to turn into an open process : to incorporate all of society and to induce knowledge by means of practice and experience (p.99).

This is realized via several public and government agencies, such as the National Institute for Adult Education, INEA (*Instituto Nacional para la Educación de los Adultos*) that offers the educational services of alphabetization, elementary and secondary schools (*primaria* and *secundaria*) and actions of informal training for labor and community education ; the Centers of Basic Education for Adults, CEBAS (*Centros de Educación Básica para Adultos*), where several basic formation services are offered, training for self-employment and a high school with open curricula (*preparatoria abierta*) ; the Centers of Extrascholar Education, CEDEX (*Centros de Educación Extraescolar*) ; nocturnal elementary and secondary schools for workers ; and the National System of Technological Education, SNET (*Sistema Nacional de Educación Tecnológica*) which offers services for labor training in formal and informal modalities; as well as other institutions for labor training. Recently, (1995) the Standardized System for Labor Competence, SNCL (*Sistema Normalizado de Competencia Laboral*) was created, through which a tighter link is sought after between the educational system and job training for the necessities and requirements of the productive and service sectors.

It is calculated that currently, 32% of the population older than 15 years of age in Mexico has not concluded or has never been enroled in elementary school, and 28% never completed secondary school, which signifies there are over 35 million adults (59.8% of the total population) who lack complete basic schooling. This is, especially, concentrated among the poorest population and the population located farthest from the cities.

According to a poll (1992 : National Institute for Statistics, Geography and Information Technology, INEGI), 19% of the national population older than 15 was between 15 and 19 years of age, but only 6% of illiterates were concentrated in this group. On the other hand, 61% of the people who could not read or write were older than 45 years of age, although they only represented 26% of the total number of adults in the nation. By that year, the illiteracy rate was 11% in localities of less than 2,500 inhabitants the rate was 23%, while in populations larger than 100,000 inhabitants, the rate was lower than 5%. This situation was amplified among the indigenous population, due to the fact that one out of every four illiterates in this country was indigenous and 41% of adults belonging to a certain ethnic group could not read or write.

The persistency of a high level of educational deficit among the adult population is due to the errors and scarce interest shown by the pertinent actions, and by politics exhibited by successive administrations, which have maintained other priorities. Other noted conditions include the absence of diversified models which can attend to diverse and heterogeneous necessities among different age, knowledge and skill levels ; limited efforts made to generate methodologies that respond to characteristic, diverse needs ; scarce evaluation of irrelevant content ; lack of stimuli which encourage learning and the lack of recovery of the knowledge and experiences of adults ; bureaucratism and corruption. The conclusion is that there is a lack of an articulate global strategy to solve the problem in an integral approach. Thereby, it is suggested that adult education must be linked in a permanent manner to the necessities that the individuals and groups consider relevant, through the participation of the necessities in the definition of the people. The learning objectives must refer to the concrete context of the people in a way that, through the acquired knowledge, new necessities and skills are generated, and consequently, all that is learned is not lost by the lack of use or relevance. Because of this, the participation of women must be taken fully into account, and their influence in all matters of education and culture must be valued.

Particularly, an emphasis is being placed on the redefinition of the educational objectives for labor. The institutions dedicated to the formation of labor in Mexico were created to conduct training in the traditional forms of productive organization, because of which they respond with difficulty to the necessities derived from the modernization of the economic sector. It is suggested that, henceforth, the training for labor activities responds to the new necessities of adults, both in the productive and service sectors, as well as in the improvement of their quality of life. In respect to this matter, however, the situation is barely in the stage of intentions and definitions.

The proposed goals are thus, to reduce the illiteracy rate to 7% of the adult population by the year 2000, and to allow that, by that year, all adults older than 15 years of age who wish to begin or continue their studies, can encounter formative training options that are adequate to their aspirations and requirements. It is noted that this effort must be associated to the initiation of a culture that favors learning as a continuous lifelong process.

From the present to the year 2000, it is estimated that over half of the supply of training services for labor will have been adjusted at least partially to the level forecast by the National Labor Competence System (Sistema Nacional de Competencia Laboral), and that labor certification will be available for the principal employment-generating activities. In 1997, a system of differentiated equivalencies is hoped to be operational, in order to evaluate and credit the knowledge gained by adults. It is also proposed to carry out a deep reform of the basic education services for adults, which comprises its fundamental concepts and foci, the functioning and coordination of the organisms and institutions that provide them, the flexibility of the programs and models, and the definition of an integral strategy.

In particular, the guidelines for the new policy towards adult education are :

-a review of the conceptual foundations of adult education

-a reorientation of the functioning of dependencies, institutions and programs towards the development of fundamental capacities among adults of limited schooling

-to increase the flexibility of the systems and programs

-to diversify the educational supply

-to develop mechanisms for the normalization and recognition of empirical learning and labor competition..

In a special way, programs that attend the education of the migrant and indigenous peoples have been considered. In respect to the former, it is considered that there are about 1.2 million minors younger than 14 years of age who are the children of migrant agricultural day laborers; this figure is doubled if the children of land laborers who emigrate sporadically in search of employment are considered.

6. Education and Labor

The technical and professional job market in Mexico is reduced, segmented and concentrated in the large urban areas. Low salaries predominate in this market.

The requirement for high level professional or technical activity is to possess a tertiary education level, the population in Mexico in which such knowledge capacities are concentrated totals little more than 4 million. The majority of this population is dedicated to administrative jobs as salaried employees, in the health care, social work, food and tourism industries. Only 13% work in some activity linked to engineering. For each 10,000 inhabitants, Mexico has 13 engineers, and only one of these has a postgraduate degree. It is calculated that the nation should have between 100 and 200 engineers for every 10,000 inhabitants to reach a sustained industrial and technological improvement.

The grand majority of professionals are located in the south-central, northern, pacific-northern and occidental regions of the nation. In other words, 66% of professionals are concentrated in the urban and industrial poles, where the educational infrastructure is best. The bulk of these professionals have a level of training and knowledge that is gradually being distanced from the requirements of the new labor market based on innovation and technological change, which is the predominant market of the nations with which Mexico interacts in an integral form, especially after the onset of the NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement).

Due to the discussion and signing of this document, a series of changes have been made referring to professional practice and to the evaluation and accreditation of the labor and educational competition among the work force.

In the NAFTA, these issues appear in the chapter corresponding to Border-spanning Trade of Services (*Comercio Transfronterizo de Servicios*), and especially in article 1210 and annex 1210.5, referring to professional services. The harmonization of the three member nations in the topics of the standardization of competencies, and of accreditation and certification standards of human resources, is thereby established.

This fact has implied that there is a demand made to the Mexican government and, implicitly, towards the educational institutions, to guarantee a group of equivalencies in quantity and quality, so that the graduation profile of technicians and professionals permits their participation in the work force of either of the three nations.

During a series of meetings that took place between 1991 and 1993, an accordance was made to promote a process of harmonization, for the adaptation to the rules and standards prevailing in the United States, and for which case, the North American Trilateral Standardization Forum (*Foro de Estandarización Trilateral de Norteamérica*) was constituted, with the participation of the American National Standards Institute (U.S.A), the National Chamber of the Transformation Industry (*Cámara Nacional de la Industria de Transformación*, Mexico) and the Standards Council (Canada). Among their objectives is the promotion of harmonization of standards among the three nations and to carry out activities of evaluation and communication respecting standards and problem solving.

The initiatives of standardization and harmonization have made important advances in the professional sectors and in the institutions of higher (tertiary) education. In practice, this has translated into a series of new mechanisms and regulations, such as a new General Professional Exam (adopted since June of 1993), the creation of a center for evaluation and certification of educational activities (the National Center for the Evaluation of Higher Education, or CENEVAL, *Centro Nacional de Evaluación de la Educación Superior*), and the System for the Standardization of Labor Competence (1995) (*Sistema de Normalizaci n de Competencia Laboral*). At a more particular level, the relations between education and labor are going through diverse contradictions.

The tendency of placing great importance on educational degrees is amplified in the positions of the directors of administration and services, where training has placed higher interest in the re-qualification of new management, supervisory, personnel management, and security techniques than in the strengthening of the abilities of the whole labor force, towards an end of innovation and social participation.

In the National Poll of Labor, Salaries, Technology and Training of the Manufacturing Sector (*Encuesta Nacional de Empleo, Salarios, Tecnología y Capacitación del Sector Manufacturero*, INEGI, 1993), several interesting data have been published, in respect to the education-labor relationship.

In this poll, it has been pointed out that, in the locations in which a change in machinery and equipment is occurring, the required technical knowledge among the workers increased by two-thirds, but no major change in participation by the workers in the decision-making process has been observed, as the shift in the organizational learning system would suppose.

In this same poll, it was reported that the requirements in differentiated job positions are of a much higher gamut of knowledge, - meaning profiles of multi-functional knowledge and of generic abilities -, as well as the fact that the re-adjustments in personnel especially affect unqualified labor.

These indicators highlight that the general tendency of the elevation of required knowledge for technical change is occurring simultaneously with a polarization between highly qualified and unqualified workers.

In this poll, it was reported that : the development of abilities, which constitutes the formal object of training, accounts for only 7.5% of the results, a similar percentage to that of which the result is a demand for promotion (7.6%). In the polled establishments, it is well conceivable that such improvements are due more to the conditions of teamwork and to the motivational results of participation, than to a design in the change of behavior. The increments in productivity, as a result of training, account for only 0.2% of all cases, which does not suggest the use of this recourse as a strategy to increase it (even so) the reported percentage of management without adequate training is larger (37.1%) than that of specialized laborers (35.8%), professional laborers (31.5%), supervisors (34.2%), administrative employees (33.8%), technicians (34.2%), and professionals (36.7%), this is only surpassed by general laborers (40.1%).

7. Financing

Taking into account that, since the decade of the eighties, the nation finds itself in a condition of instability and recurrent economic crises, the financial resources programmed for education in respect to those stipulated, vary in a significant form during those years.

From 1990 to 1992, the federal budget for education had an important change in percentage, changing from 15.7% as an annual rate, to 20.3%; but from 1993 to 1995, it became stagnant at 22%. The payment of the foreign debt is the use of the resources that takes away the highest proportion of the governmental budget.

As a proportion of the GDP in 1995-1996, the percentage occupied by educational expenses was 4.1%. The expenditures towards this sector are growing nonetheless : in 1994, the average annual public expenditure per elementary school (*primaria*) student was 1,700 pesos ; the expenditure of a secondary school (*secundaria*) student was 3,100 pesos, the high school (*bachillerato*) student expenditure was 5,000 pesos, and the higher or tertiary (*superior*) student expenditure was 9,600 pesos.

There were important reductions in federal expenditures from 1995 to 1996. In the areas of research and postgraduate education, the reduction, in respect to the previous figures, was 23.5%, in third level post-secondary education there was a reduction of 31.5%, and in basic education, there was a reduction of 5.4%.

Among the expenses that have not yet been rationalized, are those of the high sum total of charges in administrative costs, especially in the state and federal areas, which prevent the liberalization of resources that can be applied in actions that directly affect the quality of education. This has been one of the topics of major discussion regarding the politics of the State, to an extent that a program for decentralization of educational services has been initiated. This action signifies that there are new standards and procedures in place in hopes of generating a larger administrative effort, based on the simplification and decentralization of the system operations.

At the same time, there is an aim to deposit the financial efforts among the different educational sectors and agents in order to facilitate a growing contribution by society in this effort.

It is worth noting that an important sum of resources has arrived into the educational system through different programs. The bulk of these resources comes from the World Bank, and are destined especially for basic education and technical education and training.

In 1994, the Second Primary Education Project was signed by the SEP (*Secretaría de Educación Pública*) and the World Bank. This project is worth 616,700 million dollars, with the goal of assisting the government in the improvement of the quality and efficiency of elementary (*primaria*) education in the 10 states where the highest poverty and low schooling indicators are observed.

The other project for the same year totaled 265 million dollars to establish the National System of Competency Standards and Certification.

8. Learning Enviroments

One of the basic characteristics of the Mexican educational system which has worked, is the conduction of the annual free textbook distribution for elementary school students. These textbooks have been conceived as a common starting point in the formation of students and as an essential element for equivalence in access to academic opportunities.

These books are regularly renewed, both in content and in their compatibility with each grade and each line of discipline. Annually, 114 million copies are produced for preschool, elementary, and indigenous education.

The most recent innovation in this respect has been the production of free history, geography and natural resource books for each individual state. These materials incorporate contents of regional character into the curriculum, although until now only half the states have been covered.

A reform that has been publicized regarding this topic, is that of the time increment in the daily school schedule. The necessity for a larger amount of time led to the change starting in 1993, which increased the school calendar by 10% to cover 200 work days. Even after this change, the availability of hours is inferior to that of other Latin American nations and to that of other intermediate developing nations, in a proportion that ranges from 20 to 50%. This is related to the impulse for the creation of environments more conductive to learning, as well as to the generalization of new methods of learning evaluation, in correspondence to concepts that approach those of a permanent education.

In addition to this, the learning environments do not take into account the depressed socio-economic conditions for many sectors of the population, nor do they consider that access to bookstores, libraries, other school supplies, or the use of new technologies, is restricted to a social minority.

9. The Role of The State in The Education of Adults and The Participation of The Civil Society

The Mexican State has been accentuating its authoritarian aspects in time, in direct relation to the awakening of the civil society and to the decomposition of the stale system of domination. As it is well known, the political regime in Mexico is one of a State party, which has concentrated all of the power for over 60 years in the Institutional Revolutionary Party, PRI (*Partido Revolucionario Institucional*), and this fact has been reflected in the educational policies.

From a historical perspective, we can locate an important moment of rupture in the transition from a governmental program called Education for All (Educación para Todos), in 1979, towards one that places an emphasis on the search for excellence and quality (1982), the moment at which a generalized economic crisis began.

This speech and the politics that justified the search for quality education, stopped the development of public education and placed the criteria of competition as the main lever of the manifested objects. For this competition to start, the State began by taking a step from the public education field, which manifested itself in the decrease of public expenses and the promotion for more private enterprises in education. This new conception, as the data presented in this paper reveals, has reduced educational opportunities. What has been programmed for the next five years is still to be seen.

One of the expressions in which the role of the State is more evident, as a mechanism of reproduction of inequality and injustice, can be seen in terms of the participation of civil society. From the decade of the 90's, this was proclaimed as one of the conditions for the propitiation of a better use of education and raising the level of quality in education. This was supposed to impel, by law, a new culture of the participation of the different actors who would intervene in the process in a gradual manner.

A closer contact between education authorities and the community is contemplated in the General Law of Education, through the creation of Social Participation Councils. This has turned out to be a purely formal affair because these authorities have shown no interest in starting them. What has been organized are groups of parents, of communities, or students who express social resistance against educational policies that disable equity in access, or that express the bureaucratism and authoritarianism common in school administrations.

10. Some Conclusions About Lifelong Learning in Mexico

1) It can be recognized that the strategies supported by values and modernization policies in Mexico, have not been adequate to revert the inertial tendencies of the structural remainders in national education. Therefore, a more adequate focus should be postulated and articulated for the new challenges of the present and the future.

It should be situated in the valorization of the arrival of a historic period represented by the impact of new knowledge and technologies; in the transformations that occur in the organization of work, industry and services; because of the economic integration and globalization of markets and financial systems; in a more direct manner, because of a growing importance of the knowledge and the educational capacities in industrial and social production; and in the occupational profiles and new abilities related to job opportunities.

The implications of this transit towards a society of knowledge and learning should be analyzed from the perspective that it imposes greater equality in opportunity for everyone, access to formal schooling and flexible, open, informal schooling, as well as deep changes in the organizational structure and the process of teaching-learning and investigation from a lifelong learning perspective.

This appears in some parts of the official speech on education of the Mexican Government, but it is not found as an explicit project to be built, nor as an articulated strategy that could prefigure concrete goals in the medium term.

2) The conception of lifelong learning is associated with the democratization of education and a larger participation in communities, with the involved sectors and with the beginning of a generalized process of social learning. This has to do with the acquisition of abilities and capacities, knowledge and information for life.

This vision of education includes the individuals, the society, and the development of the group of components of the school system: vocational, mid-school, high-school, the non-formal, the work system, home and community. A new focus of lifelong learning should therefore be globalized, comprehensive and should attend to different objectives and diversifications so that the development of a society in transition can be more vigorous, strengthen the democratic values, cultivate collective and citizen life, maintain social cohesion and promote innovation, productivity and economic growth.

3) Education modernization, from the logic of competitors and markets is conductive to exclusion, social and political instability and the fragmentation and polarization of social sectors among the very educated and the non-educated.

4) Starting a permanent education project in an integral manner requires transcending the limited frames of governmental action to place its application in practice for a diverse group of actors and subjects: the population from all age groups, parents, employers, unions, teachers and investigators, non-profit organizations and even the participation of multilateral organisms of international cooperation.

These considerations relapse into the formulation of policies and specific programs, studies and instruments in social organizations created for such an effect, legitimate enough to be noticed by governmental policies.

This means that the objectives and practices to be accomplished can be reached by the participation of conglomerates, and not of sectors or isolated individuals, that interlock organisms, agencies and actors.

5) An adjacent criteria is that of flexibility in all scopes and subjects, mostly oriented towards curricula, classroom organization, work, the neighborhood and the community and in its relations among institutions , sectors and regions.

The new social structures articulated in a lifelong learning approach,must come forth through expressions of participation in wide and defensible environments. These will be a future expression of cities or knowledge villages, where teachers and students will join in an active manner; there will be an emphasis in the needs and interests of education for all ages; in curricula; in the search for methods and language interweavings; in the experimentation with methods and diverse teaching contexts; and in new possibilities open to the use of new technologies and the advances of pedagogy. This will require, of course, new forms of administration and government with a complete autonomy in the management of resources and a very wide spectrum of money that can be obtained.

6) Without a doubt, one of the levels that requires urgent changes and backing is found in the mid-school and high-school levels, depending on if it is there where the production of new knowledge and relations between investigation, science, technology and the work sector interlace. As well, these changes cover relative aspects within the structure and process of teaching-learning, the priorities of scientific investigation, the start up of the mechanisms that transfer knowledge to society, the significance of studies, the equality in access, the forms of government, financing and quality.

7) Education in Mexico must be re-evaluated. In a world where culture, values and lifestyles are quickly being redefined, and in which the family, communities, and individuals bond through lines, cables and circuits, through satellites, images, and symbols, a new education becomes necessary.

A new education that can profit from the vast spread of information, one that can send judgments forth and strengthen participation and communication, and not one that fragments and alienates; an education that will provide useful knowledge of high social value under new forms and structures for all, in the sense imposed by the new historical period.

The idea of lifelong learning, therefore, has a central sustenance validity. A learning society represents a very important opportunity for education to express itself in all its human possibilities, but does not represent the same condition for everyone. This is what we have to completely avoid in the future.

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Chapter 5

TRANSITION TO A MODEL OF LIFELONG EDUCATION: CANADIAN MONOGRAPH

by PIERRE PAQUET

1. The indicators of initial education (compulsory schooling)

1.1. The Structure of Education

The education system is composed of the following three types of school:

1) Primary and Secondary Education: In 1995-1996, Canada had 16,227 primary and secondary schools.[1] There are four types of school: public schools for which local education authorities are responsible, private schools run by private persons or private groups, federal schools for which the Ministry of Indian Affairs or the Ministry of Defence (overseas schools) is responsible, and schools for handicapped children run largely by the provincial authorities. Since, according to the Canadian Constitution, education is under provincial jurisdiction, the way in which the primary and secondary education system is organized varies from one authority to another. Primary education lasts, depending on the area, five years (one province), six years (six provinces and two territories), seven years (one province) or eight years (two provinces). Secondary education comprises a single cycle lasting four or five years (four provinces) or two cycles: either two cycles of three years each (five provinces and two territories) or a first cycle of four years and a second cycle of three years (one province).

2) Vocational Schools: Some schools offer secondary education, and others post-secondary education. They provide practical education leading directly to the exercise of certain trades and occupations in a number of different fields: arts, business and commerce, engineering and applied sciences, health sciences and associated disciplines, natural sciences and primary industries, social sciences and social services, and the humanities and associated disciplines. These may be programmes of vocational training leading to employment or apprenticeship, programmes for registered apprentices, programmes of specialized further training or programmes leading to vocational training.

3) Post-secondary Education: In 1995-1996, higher education consisted of 289 community colleges and 78 universities. Among the community colleges are counted the *Colléges d'enseignement général et professionel* in Quebec (CEGEPS), the *Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology* in Ontario, agricultural colleges, colleges of arts, teacher training colleges, colleges of nursing, etc. Some of these colleges provide vocational training programmes, others provide pre-university programmes, and a certain number offer both types of programme. Among the universities, 21 only grant first degrees, 22 offer first degrees and Master's, and 34 offer all three levels, from first degrees to doctorates.[2]

1.2. Preschool Education

All the Canadian provinces (with the exception of Prince Edward Island) and the territories provide services for children of five years of age through the educational authorities. Only three provinces, Quebec, Ontario and Manitoba, also provide services for certain categories of children aged four: handicapped children and those deemed to be at risk of failing at school. In 1995-1996, 539,000 children were attending preschool education in Canada, the vast majority of them part-time. Full-time preschool education is mainly provided in urban centres. In most of the provinces and in the territories, the number of children attending preschool education is approximately equal to the number of children enrolled in the first year of primary education. In two of the three provinces providing services to children of four years of age (Ontario and Manitoba), the number of preschool enrolments is well in excess of the number of pupils in the first year.[3]

The rate of participation in preschool education among children aged four and five has risen markedly over the last 20 years, from 39% in 1971-1972 to 72% in 1991-1992. However, if access to education for very young children is compared with that in other OECD countries, the net rate of preschool education in Canada is below that of most countries in the European Union and that of the United States.[4]

Opinions and reports presented to the provincial authorities, notably in Ontario[5] and Quebec,[6] recommend that preschool education should be considered a priority, and that the provision of full-time places should be expanded so that developmental problems among children can be dealt with at an early stage. It is suggested that provision should be made for all children, rather than compensatory education alone, which may have the effect of stigmatizing the children labelled as being at risk.

1.3. Out-of-school Education for Young people

Various forms of out-of-school education which parallel school and workplace education have grown up in the provinces and territories. The oldest are the cooperative system (as devised in England and subsequently transferred to the United States), and the apprenticeship system in controlled occupations. Every two years, the Canadian Cooperative Education Association publishes a list of establishments which offer cooperative courses and post-secondary training; the 1993-1994 edition lists 148 institutions: 90 colleges, 47 universities and 11 institutes. The colleges and institutes then had 22,000 students enrolled in cooperative education courses, and the universities 31,000. Cooperative courses are concentrated in the areas of commerce, administration and management, engineering and applied sciences, and mathematics and physical sciences. These alone account for 75% of students in cooperative education.[7]

Over the last ten years, programmes using alternating periods of work and study have grown considerably in different forms: partnerships with companies, learning of new occupations in new ways, skills training, observation training, integrated training, labour market entry training, etc. Alternating work and study is seen as a means of enhancing young people's motivation, perseverance and success rate. The creation of the federal programme *Alternating Study and Work* served as a catalyst for the development of this type of programme in secondary schools and community colleges.

Moreover, given the fact that young people drop out of school before they complete secondary education at what is thought an unacceptably high rate (put at 30%), in 1989 the Federal Government launched the School First programme for a period of five years. The programme set out to support partnership initiatives between private business, educators and community groups with a view to devising programmes to prevent school dropout among primary and secondary pupils. The programme was subsequently extended year by year.

In April 1994, the Federal Government published its *Strategy to Promote Employment and Skills Acquisition Among Young People*, which was intended to "lay the foundations for more modern job entry schemes" which could make the transition from school to work easier. In the year when it was launched, 1994-1995, the strategy was given a budget of $ 685 million, reallocated from funds already allotted to the Ministry of Employment and Immigration. Some new programmes were to be based on work experience, and others to focus on the acquisition of new skills and knowledge.

This is what will happen under the *Young Trainees Programme*, which is intended to develop new models of training based on partnership between the private sector, education and training agencies, and provincial and territorial governments. These could be schemes run by industries on a national scale, programmes of alternating work and study (the aim being to develop more thorough programmes than those already provided), or training given locally by private sector voluntary associations, non-governmental bodies or educational and training establishments. The programme will set out to provide up to 20,000 workplace training places for young people. A budget of $ 288 million has been allocated for two years (1995-1996 and 1996-1997) for the full implementation of the programme.

1.4. Enrolment Figures

1.4.1. Primary and Secondary Education[8]

In 1995, some 5,508,300 children were attending primary and secondary schools (including the half a million children at the preschool level). The vast majority of pupils (94%) were in public schools. Although private schools have been expanding over the last 20 years, they only account for 5% of enrolments. The part played by private schools varies from one province to the other, and in some cases is relatively large. In Quebec, for instance, the proportion of pupils attending private secondary schools reached 17.2% in 1993-1994. Federal schools account for around 1% of enrolments, while schools for handicapped children take up a minimal fraction.

In 1992-1993, trade schools had a relatively low number of full-time students, about 130,000 persons. The criteria for admission to vocational training courses leading to the exercise of a trade can vary from one province to another, but as a general rule, a certificate of secondary education is not required. Those enrolled in trade schools can be divided up as follows:

1) Training programmes leading to employment or apprenticeship (73,000 persons). Generally, this type of programme lasts no longer than one year. Enrolments in these programmes have declined over the last ten years.

2) Programmes for registered apprentices (57,000 persons). "Programmes for registered apprentices alternate between workplace training and short periods of technical classroom education. Classroom education in most provinces is generally given in designated post-secondary establishments, except in Quebec, where programmes have no classroom education."[9]

1.4.2. Higher Education[10]

In 1994, higher education establishments, community colleges and universities, accounted for 1,435,600 students, 569,000 of them in community colleges (39.7%), and 866,000 in universities (61.3%). In the community colleges, 73% of students were attending vocational courses, and 27% pre-university courses. In the universities, 87% of students were enrolled in first-degree courses, and 13% were pursuing higher degrees.

1.5. Policies and measures to guarantee access to initial education

Public schools are free for all citizens up to the end of secondary education. Private schools, on the other hand, levy school fees. Five provinces make grants to private schools, the four western provinces and Quebec. The level of support varies from 30% to 60% of the average cost of a pupil in the public system. A large majority of pupils attending private schools (85.9%) are concentrated in three provinces: Quebec (39.3%), Ontario (28.9%) and British Columbia (17.7%).[11] In Canada, compulsory schooling lasts from the age of six years (in five provinces and one territory) or seven years (also in five provinces and one territory) to 16 years. The school enrolment rate, which exceeds 90% up to the age of 16, subsequently declines progressively (Table 1).

According to the data in the last census, the level of education of the Canadian population has risen considerably in recent decades. In the population aged 15 years and over, in 1991, 14.3% (three million persons) had not reached 9th grade, while in 1971, that proportion had been 32.3%. Among people aged 15 to 24 years, in 1991, only 4% had not reached 9th grade (12% in 1971 and 51% in 1951).

The certificate of secondary education is usually regarded in various quarters as the minimum requirement for successful entry to the labour market, for adapting oneself to the changes that typify the employment market, and in consequence for the acquisition of the new skills needed. According to the 1991 census data, a third of the population aged 20 years and over (6.9 million persons) do not have that certificate. Moreover, among young people, the rate of dropout before completion of secondary education (estimated at 30%) gives reason to believe that this situation will continue. The education system, in its present form, adequately serves those who follow the *royal road* leading to higher education; some provinces even provide programmes for gifted pupils. But schools throw out a quite unacceptable proportion of young people mid-way: handicapped youngsters, children with social or learning difficulties, and young people from disadvantaged backgrounds or remote areas.

As in many countries, the struggle against inequalities, dropout and school failure relies largely on compensatory strategies. Some provinces have developed special programmes for children experiencing learning or social difficulties, while others have preferred to integrate such children into ordinary classes. But even if the choice is integration, it is felt that schools have to make resources available to give special help to pupils showing particular needs.

At the local and regional level, numerous initiatives are taken within the education system by teachers, professionals and administrators, sometimes in association with people from community agencies, in order to combat failure and dropout. In many cases, these are novel, innovative ideas, but their influence is relatively restricted. Such initiatives can take place within the regular curriculum, by way of preventative measures, or in particular tracks or special classes or schools (for example for dropouts), that is, in environments which are suited to the needs not met by ordinary schooling.

However, the various one-off schemes and reforms have not, over the years, succeeded in countering inequalities effectively. Given the high proportion of young people leaving the education system before obtaining a certificate of secondary education, some provinces have introduced remedial programmes to encourage young people to return to school with a view to gaining the certificate, or at least to obtain initial vocational training. This is notably the case in Quebec, where some of the resources devoted to adults serve rather to correct the deficiencies that the education system has not succeeded in overcoming during the period of compulsory schooling.

In its report *Exposé de situation*, the States-General Commission on Education described the noticeable presence of young people aged 16 to 18 years in general adult education as a *distortion of the system*. According to the Commission data, in 1991-1992, in Quebec, "11% of young people under 20 years of age have gone directly, without interrupting their education, from the children's to the adult sector."[12] The Commission believed that this side-street was a blind alley. The education system should rather introduce the measures needed to help pupils aged 16 to 18 years to succeed during their initial schooling.

An awareness of the human and social costs of absenteeism, school failure and dropout has demonstrated the need for a profound review of the education system. Statements are more and more often heard to the effect that no young person should leave the education system without acquiring the vocational skills required for entry into the labour market. In the recognition that the traditional model does not suit all young people, attempts are being made to develop complementary tracks which provide alternatives. The diversification of pathways, programmes and places of learning appears increasingly necessary. There is unanimous agreement on the need to review training models to give greater prominence to periods spent in the workplace, and to partnership. These less academic patterns are better suited to the needs of certain categories of pupils who are more at ease with practical learning and who drop out at present because they do not see schools offering them anything other than education designed for those who are aiming at higher education. Compared with other OECD countries, Canada is a long way behind in this.

Table 1. Population aged 15 to 26 years by rate of school enrolment, Canada 1991

Age	Enrolment rate
15-18 years	86.8%
15 years	91.9%
16 years	90.2%
17 years	86.7%
18 years	78.6%
19-22 years	53.4%
19 years	66.6%
20 years	57.1%
21 years	48.7%
22 years	41.3%
23-16 years	25.3%
23 years	33.8%
24 years	27.0%
25 years	22.5%
26 years	19.2%

Source: Statistics Canada, Level of Education and School Enrolment: the Country, Ottawa, Ministry of Industry, Science and Technology, 1993, Table 8, p. 132, Catalogue 93-328 (1991 census data).

1.6. The Concept of Lifelong Learning

The principle of *lifelong learning* is tending to spread throughout official utterances. The Council of Ministers of Education of Canada (CMEC), which brings together the Ministers of Education of the provinces on a voluntary basis, stated on 23 September 1993 that: "We believe that education is a process of acquiring knowledge that takes place throughout life." The working document published in 1995 in which the Canadian Government launched a restructuring of the social security system, refers to this concept in its own way:

> "The principle that Canadian workers should, throughout their careers, periodically update and improve the knowledge and skills that they use at work is what is called continuing acquisition of skills. Ten years from now, continuing acquisition of skills must become a way of life for the entire population. The outdated idea that schools are only for children and young adults, inculcated into many of us since childhood, will be consigned to the scrap heap."[13]

In the provinces, consultative bodies are also putting forward this principle of integration. In a report on continuing adult education published in March 1996, for example, the Superior Education Council of Quebec sets out the principle of "lifelong education" as one of the two main avenues to be explored in order to establish a true system of continuing education.[14] Nonetheless, an examination of the latest reports from commissions studying education in the various provinces shows that while there is a clear statement of the need to review the purpose and aims of the school system, given the scale of the changes affecting society, the principle of *lifelong learning* occupies a marginal place where it is not totally absent from the discussion and recommendations.

1.7. The Role of Teachers, and Initial and Inservice Training of Teachers

In the educational *Exposé de situation* of the States-General (Quebec), it is said that: "The training of the teaching staff is the nerve-centre of the war. Many people believe that the quality of teaching rests primarily on the training of competent, enthusiastic teachers who will transmit their enthusiasm to their pupils." The report of the Royal Commission on Education (Ontario) says that: "The best educational intentions in the world will be a dead letter if they are not transferred to the classroom." The main recommendations in both provinces follow the same thinking: extending initial education, and a greater place for work placements; and a strengthening of inservice teacher training.[15]

2. Changes in Higher Education

2.1. Expanding Access to College and University Education

Access to higher education has made significant progress in recent decades. In 1993, some 12.5% of the population aged 15 years and over had a university degree (4.8% in 1971), and another 31.9% had pursued other post-secondary education (17.1% in 1971).[16] However, it seems important to go on aiming for accessibility in education, given the advent of a society in which knowledge is taking on vital importance, and the persistence of significant disparities in both access and certification according to region, socio-economic background, sex and mother tongue.

In Canada, higher education establishments have adopted an open approach towards the possibility of part-time study. In the community colleges and the universities, approximately a third of students are enrolled part-time. In 1993-1994, 32.5% of people in community colleges were studying part-time. However, in recent years, part-time enrolments have fallen (in 1990-1991, 37% of students were part-time). In the same year, 34% of students in the universities were enrolled part-time. There is the same downward trend there as in the community colleges (in 1990-1991, 38% of enrolments were part-time).

In 1993, there was no difference between the proportion (23%) of women and men who had a post-secondary non-university certificate or diploma. But there were fewer women (11%) than men (14%) with a university degree. This gap should close, however, given the fact that women are currently in the majority in university enrolments. In 1993-1994, women accounted for 53.9% of students studying full-time for a first degree, and 62.5% of those studying part-time. Women remained in the minority, however, among students enrolled in Master's and doctoral courses (46.4%), particularly among full-time students (43.1%). In 1993-1994, women were in the majority in community colleges, accounting for 53.0% of full-time enrolments and 60.1% of part-time enrolments.[17]

In post-secondary education, "adult" students occupy a more significant place than at any time in the past. The percentage of students aged 25 years and over has gone from 14% in 1971-1972 to 22% in 1991-1992: they then accounted for 17% of the enrolments in the community colleges, and 25% in the universities. In the community colleges, the proportion of women among "adult" students (19%) was higher than that of men (16%). In the universities, the situation was reversed: 28% of men, and 22% of women.

In the universities, enrolments by students aged 25 years and over have grown more rapidly than those of students aged under 25 years. As a result, in 1993, "adult" students accounted for 25.0% of full-time enrolments

(18.5% in 1972),[18] and 74.8% of part-time enrolments (67.7% in 1972). In first-degree courses alone, "adult" students accounted for 71% of part-time enrolments.[19]

2.2. Measures to Guarantee Access to Higher Education

In most provinces, students have access to university once they have obtained their certificate of secondary education (12 years of schooling). However, in Ontario (with a pre-university course) and Quebec (college-type pre-university education), transference to university is after the 13th year of schooling. A large number of community colleges and universities demonstrate flexibility in some fields of study, allowing admission to first-degree programmes if adults do not meet the initial education requirements demanded of young people. In such cases, it is generally a requirement that they should be over the age of 21 years.

These persons may enrol in programmes designed specifically for adults, for example, certificate programmes. In some fields they may also apply for admission as ordinary students to obtain a university degree; some faculties and vocational schools are "closed", however, and are reserved for a number of students chosen by lot. The range of pathways and careers offered to adults illustrates the way in which higher education establishments have adapted to the needs of the adult population and the new realities of the labour market.

Surveys carried out in Canada tend to show that part-time study favours more democratic access to university studies, as the social origins of such students are more varied. One of the main ways of encouraging universities to adopt this system has been through government subsidies for part-time students based on full-time equivalents. This approach makes it possible to avoid penalizing certain categories of people who cannot study full-time and whose chances of entering university education would otherwise be restricted. Nonetheless, the likelihood of undertaking higher education rises in line with the parents' level of education. According to the results of a survey on Canadians' intergenerational schooling, the likelihood of pursuing post-secondary education rises progressively from 40% if the parents have not completed secondary education, to 65% if the parents have a certificate of secondary education, and to 80% if the parents have pursued post-secondary education.20

In 1993-1994, Canadian universities drew 64% of their income from public funds, mainly from provincial administrations. Depending on the province, the income from public funds varied from 58.5% (Ontario) to 72.0% (Quebec) of universities' total income.[21] Everywhere in the country, the proportion of income from public funds has been falling for a number of years. Canadian universities are seeking to expand their private sources of income to fund their activities, notably by increasing that part of their budget originating from tuition fees and business contracts. Between 1987-1988 and 1993-1994, the private portion of universities' income rose from 29% to 36%. Although Canada is still far from the situation in the United States and Japan, where most of the funding comes from private sources, this development does raise questions about how universities operate:

> "...if we consider the issue of independence versus dependency vis-à-vis funding bodies, or if we take into account competition which, while having the merit of encouraging improvement in services provided, does cause problems of adaptation in the way in which universities fulfil their mission. We have therefore to examine closely the movement which consists in shifting university funding increasingly to private sources, which are themselves largely subsidized by the state through grants in aid, business support schemes and tax advantages."[22]

In Canada, the authorities have adopted a model in which the universities have wide institutional autonomy and academic freedom. This model enabled the universities, in the past, to remain relatively sheltered from external questions and interference. But this is no longer the case: studies and enquiries are being conducted from one end of the country to the other, leading the university world towards "the time to make choices and decisions". Some of the queries concern the way in which the academic staff carry out their tasks, others the recruitment and promotion policies. Questions are asked about the fact that research is given greater weight by academic staff, to the detriment of teaching which, it is said, does not receive all the attention it deserves, particularly at first-degree level, where inadequate support is given to students. The little regard paid to academics' teaching ability in university recruitment and promotion is lamented. It is observed that a good number of academic staff have fled from teaching at first-degree level, leaving this to people on temporary contracts (course tutors). There is doubt expressed over the adequacy of services that are essential to academic success, notably for "adult" students (reception services, support, information, counselling, personal help and guidance).

2.3. Flexibility of Teaching Hours

The growth in higher education enrolments, and the constant presence of "adult" students, have meant that community colleges and universities have modified their provision to include weekday evenings, intensive weekend sessions and summer vacation courses. In some establishments, the teachers teach both in the evening and the day, while in others, evening and weekend courses are largely given by people on temporary contracts (course tutors).

2.4. Integration in the Community

Cooperation with the local environment and partnership are part of the mandate of community colleges and the extra-mural function of the universities. Collaboration takes different forms. In some provinces, community college governing boards bring together representatives of businesses and various local bodies. Moreover, the federal training and labour force strategies adopted in 1995 (*The Planning of Employment*) and in 1990 (*Labour Force Development Strategy*) have acted as catalysts to encourage community colleges to develop tailor-made courses which match the needs of businesses. Many community colleges have in consequence set up specific departments to service business. In the universities, the development of services for business traditionally took the form of agreements negotiated by the academic staff and then ratified by the administration. But some universities have also set up specific structures to liaise with business.

This type of activity should make it possible to provide better education and training services rather than merely being seen as a way of making the operation pay by providing services to the sectors that pay best. One of the main challenges posed by the development of these various forms of collaboration is "the development of complementarity within the egalitarian relationships between the parties".[23] In order to enable educational institutions to fulfil their purpose, these forms of collaboration must be clearly delineated.

2.5. The Current Relationship Between Methods of Funding and University Clients

Under the Constitution, education is a provincial responsibility. However, the Federal Government is directly concerned with the education of registered Indians and Inuit (through the Ministry of Indian and Northern Affairs) and armed forces personnel (the Ministry of National Defence), and with 23 schools in medium and maximum-security prisons (the Correctional Service of Canada). The Federal Government contributes to the funding of post-secondary education in various ways (about half the total cost of the system, almost $ 8 billion in 1994-1995): direct transfers, research grants given by the federal research councils, the Canadian Student Loan Programme, the teaching of official languages, etc. The main support programme has been the *Funding of Established Programmes* (FEP, $ 6.1 billion in 1994-1995), through unconditional transfer to the provinces.

But this transfer programme, which has been in existence since 1977, will soon be replaced by a new programme, Canadian Social Transfer (CST). As announced in the federal budget of February 1994, from the year 1996-1997, "transfers made to the provinces under ... the post-secondary education heading of Funding of Established Programmes (FEP) may not exceed the level they had reached in 1993-1994 ($ 6.07 billion)".[24] From the point of view of the Superior Education Council of Quebec, under this new programme, "the provinces will regain room for manoeuvre, but considerably less money."[25]

2.6. Full-time Equivalent Students

Under the Canadian Student Loans Act, there has been a scheme of financial assistance with post-secondary education since 1964, the Canadian Student Loan Scheme (CSLS). This scheme is topped up by loans and grants given by the provinces and territories. The CSLS is offered in nine provinces and one territory. One territory (the Northwest Territories) and one province (Quebec) run their own financial assistance schemes. Around half the students in colleges and universities borrow through student loan schemes.

The CSLS is an important element of the overall strategy of education for young people. It was initially designed exclusively to help people who were enrolled full-time. But under amendments made to the Canadian Act in 1983, part-time students became eligible for the loan scheme. In fact, loans to part-time students only take up a fraction of the CSLS: less than 1% of the loans and less than 0.5% of the scheme's budget in 1992-1993.

The CSLS was revised in 1994. From 1994-1995, the maximum amount of loans made to full-time students was increased from $ 105 to $ 165 per week; the ceiling for loans to part-time students was raised from $ 2500 to $ 4000; and special grants were made to handicapped students and, from 1995-1996, to part-time students who had heavy financial commitments, and to women pursing doctoral studies. The revision of the CSLS also made repayment of loans by graduates more flexible. Despite the revision, the CSLS remained ill-suited to the situation of *adult students* wishing to return to study.

Income tax regulations also make a significant contribution. Students enrolled in post-secondary educational institutions can claim a deduction for each month of full-time study; study grants are non-taxable; and both full-time and part-time students may deduct from their income the tuition fees paid to post-secondary educational institutions.

3. Indicators of Changing adult Education Provision

3.1. Ways of Responding to the Social Demand for Adult Education

While adult education through voluntary agencies has a long history, structured government intervention in the relationship between adult education and the labour market is a phenomenon dating from the mid-1960s:

> "Education and training became a feature of labour market policy: vocational training was seen as a way of keeping a job, of joining or rejoining the

labour market, and of adapting to new demands for new skills.

> "In this type of state intervention, found in all advanced industrialized societies, the considerations are the same: macro-economic management, employment, the labour market, wages and salaries, and social security cover. Political choices about the different elements determine how the state intervenes in each country, and produce slightly different effects in each."[26]

3.2. The Vocational Training Act

Towards the middle of the 1960s, the Federal Government took over the lead in adult education. In 1967, it passed the first Act relating specifically to the vocational training of adults, which established the *Canadian Labour Force Training Programme* (CLFTP). Although this field remained under provincial jurisdiction, by invoking its responsibility for stabilizing employment and raising productivity, the Federal Government gave its own agencies, the *Canadian Employment Centres* (CEC), the role of recruiting candidates, buying courses and finding subsequent jobs in the labour market. Over the 15 years that this Act was in force (1967-1982), the sums devoted by central government to adult education increased tenfold. It is estimated that over 80% of the money spent on adult education during this period by various tiers of government originated from the Federal Government.

The CLFTP was made up of two elements: classroom education and aid to industry. The establishment of the CLFTP gave the green light for the development of adult education and training in secondary schools and colleges. The activities offered mainly took the form of complete training programmes. They aimed to prepare adults who were finding it difficult to get a job to carry out trades and other occupations which were in demand on the labour market and would guarantee such people stable, well-paid positions.

During the 15 years of the existence of the programme, educational establishments took the lion's share of the training given. In the year when the CLFTP was set up, the aid to industry element accounted for 1% of the total expenditure of the programme. And despite all the efforts of the Federal Government to stimulate in-company training, the aid to industry element never exceeded one quarter of the budget allocated to training. The official claim was that the priority objective of the CLFTP was long-term economic growth, and that it was using periods of slowdown to prepare for the subsequent phase of expansion. The crisis of the 1970s shed doubt on whether the aims pursued by the programme would be achieved. The persistence of problems affecting the Canadian economy, and the widespread criticisms of using adult education and training programmes for purposes of stabilization, convinced the Canadian Government of the need to revise its adult education policies and programmes. Commissions and working groups multiplied in the late 1970s and the early 1980s.

3.3. The National Training Act

Based largely on the recommendations of the *Parliamentary Working Group on Employment Prospects in the 1980s*, a new law (the National Training Act) was passed by the Canadian Parliament in June 1982. The report of the *Parliamentary Working Group* recommended a return to the original aims of the 1967 Act, and the continued pursuit of the objective of full employment, while certain amendments were to be made to ensure that government intervention was based more directly on the current and foreseeable needs of the labour market. The NTP, like the previous scheme (CLFTP), comprised two elements, classroom education and workplace training. The Federal Government signed agreements with the provinces which focused on economic growth, occupations of national importance, and the scarcity of skilled labour. The aim of equity for disadvantaged groups in employment was also reaffirmed.

3.4. The Planning of Employment

In 1984, however, a new government was elected which adopted a different labour market strategy with effect from 1985: *the planning of employment*. The Government justified this reform by arguing that the schemes in force were totally insufficient to meet the needs of the market. It was even stated that these schemes "emphasised projects that created bogus jobs and encouraged neither the acquisition of skills in demand nor the creation of real jobs."[27]

By adopting a resolutely neoliberal approach, although without amending the 1982 Act, *the planning of employment* proposed an in-depth revision of adult training and job creation programmes. By abandoning the goal of full employment, which the new National Training Act had maintained, priority was henceforward to be given to matching provision to demand. Unemployment was merely regarded as an indicator of the vitality and competitiveness of the economy, and not as a scourge to be combated by the Government. It was held that it was now up to the private sector to create employment. The Government was to concentrate on providing a favourable environment and on meeting the needs of the various regional and local labour markets.

The planning of employment proposed two distinct, complementary approaches. In each case, the goal was the same - to overcome shortages of labour - but the means adopted were very different:

> 1) The first approach was based on skills training. When the market required skills to be learnt because of technological change or changing market conditions, or when jobs were unfilled because of

a lack of qualified workers, training leading to trades and other occupations in demand would be the action chosen.

2) The second approach, however, was based mainly on the acquisition of work experience, whether or not it was an element of training. This is what became known as employability schemes for people on the periphery of the labour market, or outside it. This approach set out above all to make a pool of unskilled or poorly skilled labour available to employers. Training was regarded as one way among others of making this category of labour available: labour market and job information services, employment counselling, initiation into the labour market, work experience, subsidized wages, assistance with mobility, etc.

From 1985, the Federal Government signed agreements with the provinces specifically relating to *the planning of employment*. Under these agreements, Ottawa was to give the provinces supplementary financial resources which would serve partly to retrain the labour force, and partly to develop a new field, that of the "transition between school or home and the labour market", i.e., labour market entry for people with particular employment problems. Another type of agreement was also signed with the provinces, on the *employability* of those in receipt of social security assistance. In this case, the costs of the programmes were shared under the terms of the *Canadian Public Assistance Scheme* (CPAS). From 1985, the initiatives taken by the Federal Government in adult education and training tended to reinforce this new strategy based on the immediate needs of the labour market.

While the agreements signed with the provinces in 1982 reflected the spirit and the letter of the new National Training Act, those signed in 1987 took a quite different form. These agreements only concerned classroom education. The workplace training element was henceforward to be subsumed under *the planning of employment agreements*. Moreover, the classroom education element underwent major amendments. In accordance with the objectives of the planning of employment, these agreements required that educational establishments should, within three years, convert 40% of the amounts previously allocated to standardized training (in the form of individual training courses or complete training programmes) into tailor-made training activities suited to the specific needs of companies. The National Training Programme thus became one means among others of implementing the planning of employment, which was at the heart of the new federal labour market strategy.

3.5. The labour force skills validation strategy

Two years later, the Consultative Committee on Adaptation charged by the Government with advising it on the measures to be taken so that Canadians could profit fully from the Free Trade Agreement with the United States (NAFTA), submitted its report (March 1989). Taking into account the new context of the global economy, the Council maintained that "the old theory linking economic vigour and full employment is no longer valid,"[28] and it saw its role in terms of matching supply to demand, i.e., of meeting the immediate needs of the labour market. This report dealt in particular with questions such as the vocational skills of the labour force and the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme*.

A month after the report was submitted, in April 1989, the Minister of Employment and Immigration, who was responsible for administering the Unemployment Insurance Scheme, for *the National Training Act* and *The Planning of Employment*, announced his intention of carrying out a thorough reform of the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme* and, to this end, published a policy statement, the *Labour Force Skills Validation Strategy* (LFSVS), which largely echoed the recommendations of the Consultative Committee on Adaptation. The goal of increasing the role played by the private sector occupied a key place in this policy statement, both in public training policies and programmes, and in training activities organized or taught by companies.

The LFSVS, which was a complementary strategy to *the planning of employment*, pursued goals of the same type, but substantially enlarged the sphere of operations of the Federal Government in the training of the unemployed and of workers in employment. Here too, the Government considered that it was not its job to modify or to manage employment or, for similar reasons, to help to fund the *Unemployment Insurance Fund*. In April 1989, the Ministry of Finance announced the Government's intention henceforward to leave it up to the private sector to fund the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme*. The Act amending the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme*, and allowing the LFSVS to be supported, was finally passed in November 1990, after long and stormy debates. The main effects of this reform were:

1) To eliminate any Federal Government contribution to the funding of the *Unemployment Insurance Fund* (in the previous year, Ottawa's contribution had risen to $ 2.9 billion).
2) To restrict access to the *Scheme*, and the level and duration of payments. Some people saw in this a desire on the part of the Canadian Government to bring the Canadian scheme closer to that of the United States, which was far less generous.
3) To enable the funds of the *Unemployment Insurance Fund* to be used, up to a maximum of 15%, "for uses with a productive purpose". In future, the money in the *Fund* could also serve to finance a range of activities (course fees and additional grants, job creation, job-sharing; help

with self-employment and mobility were added in due course). These were measures and services which the Government had itself been paying for directly out of Treasury funds.

Before the reform, the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme* had for a number of years already been helping to support the incomes of beneficiaries taking part in three programmes linked with labour force retraining which were not part of *the planning of employment*. In 1990, the last year before the reform, the Fund had paid a little over $ 500 million "for uses with a productive purpose" (around 3.5% of the total expenditure of the Scheme). Being a recipient of unemployment insurance did not confer the right to the courses or programmes of *the planning of employment*. The reform of the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme* and the LFSVS completely changed the way in which the costs of these programmes were shared.

While the expenditure under *the planning of employment* initially shot up to around $ 1.4 billion and then tended to decline year by year, the funds of the *Unemployment Insurance Fund* used for productive purposes grew substantially after the reform of November 1990. In 1991-1992, expenditure was at $ 1.1 billion; in 1992-1993 and 1993-1994, it gravitated towards some $ 1.8 billion, and in 1994-1995, the budget was fixed by the Government at $ 1.9 billion. Very soon after the reform, the *Unemployment Insurance Fund* became the main source of funds for the federal labour market intervention strategy.

In response to the recommendations of the Consultative Committee on Adaptation, the Government announced its intention of encouraging more structured participation by the private sector in devising and implementing labour market intervention policies and programmes. In January 1991, the Federal Government announced the creation of the Canadian Commission on Updating the Labour Force (CCULF), a consultative body under the aegis of the Ministry of Employment and Immigration, then of the Ministry of Development and Human Resources, when this new ministry was set up in 1995, with much wider discretionary powers.

The CCULF was composed of 22 members appointed not by the Government but by the parties that they represented: eight representatives appointed by the employers, eight representatives appointed by the trade unions, two representatives appointed by a national association of bodies from the world of education and training, and one representative appointed by each of four groups named in the federal Employment Equality Act (women, speakers of indigenous languages, handicapped persons and visible minorities). In order to encourage the involvement of the private sector, the CCULF promoted the establishment of regional commissions in the provinces and territories, and subsequently the creation of local commissions in each region.

On a number of occasions during the few years of its existence, the CCULF had the opportunity to express its disquiet at the cuts in Treasury funds devoted to training and the growing importance given by the Government to training recipients of unemployment insurance through the *Scheme Fund*. In the Commission's view, the Government thereby came to "set unjustified priorities in the choice of people to be trained", for two reasons:

"First of all, the training funds provided to people entitled to Unemployment Insurance have grown considerably, while those available to people who are not entitled to this scheme have greatly diminished. This shift seems disproportionate to what might have been occasioned by the change in the economic climate. Secondly, specific projects which were previously funded by the Treasury and were addressed to people not entitled to Unemployment Insurance are now subjected to pressure to include people entitled to Unemployment Insurance as funding is provided from the Unemployment Insurance scheme rather than from the Treasury. The funding mechanism appears to have a disproportionate effect on priority with regard to the clientele.... The current method of splitting the funding of the costs of courses into Unemployment Insurance and Treasury elements is counterproductive."[29]

Another CCULF document, the report of the Working Group on Transition to Employment, recommended "that the Federal Government should once more provide access to the training system to people who are not entitled to unemployment insurance."[30]

3.6. The reform of the social security system

In October 1994, the Federal Minister of Finance published the document entitled *A New Framework for Economic Policy*, in which the Government announced its intention to combat the deficit. This document argued that such a goal meant fighting on several fronts. Among the fronts identified was the announcement of an imminent reform of the Unemployment Insurance Scheme, and more generally, of the social security system. At the beginning of October 1994, the Minister of Human Resource Development laid before the House of Commons a working document entitled *Social Security in the Canada of Tomorrow*. This document invited the provinces and the population to reflect on the changes to be introduced into the three main elements of the social security system:

1) Employment, notably an in-depth reform of the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme*.
2) Skills acquisition, based mainly on assistance to post-secondary education by means of transfers of funds to the provinces and to the *Canadian Stu-*

dent Loan Scheme, and on financial assistance to individuals for continuing education.

3) Social security itself, i.e. mainly the *Canadian Public Assistance Scheme* (CPAS), two thirds of the expenditure of which was devoted to supporting provincial social assistance schemes.

The context of this exercise was clearly defined:

> "The reform of social security has to be seen in the context of the financial parameters needed to attain the Government goal of reducing the deficit to 3% of GDP between now and 1996-1997. The 1994 federal budget includes measures which aim to reduce expenditure linked to unemployment insurance by at least 2.4 billion dollars in a full year. It also announces that the examination of social security policies will lead to a further marked reduction in unemployment insurance expenditure. Following the reform of social security, in 1996-1997 and thereafter, the transfers accorded to the provinces under the *Canadian Public Assistance Scheme* (CPAS) and the *post-secondary education* element of the Funding of Established Programmes (FEP) may not exceed the level of 1993-1994. In that year, transfers under the CPAS amounted to 7.74 billion dollars, and those under the FEP for post-secondary education, to 6.07 billion dollars."[31]

The proposals concerning the reform of the *Unemployment Insurance Scheme* caused a stir and had a direct effect on adult education and training. The *Unemployment Insurance Scheme* project was presented to the House of Commons by the Minister of Human Resource Development on 1 December 1995. On that occasion, some commentators on the political scene observed that "the social security net is withering away."[32] The new Act was passed in June 1996 and came into force on 1 July 1996. The Employment Insurance Act replaced both the *Unemployment Insurance Act* and the *National Training Act* dating from 1982.

The *Employment Insurance Scheme* has two elements: income support, which gives recipients a guaranteed income while they are looking for a job (passive measures), and re-employment support grants and active measures, which correspond to the *uses for a productive purpose* under the former Act. The new scheme is less generous than the old. When fully operative, in 2001-2002, the scheme is to be cut by $ 2 billion per year; of this sum, $ 800 million will be reinvested in the second element, the active measures. The re-employment support grants are to consist of five types of measures, replacing 39 different schemes previously provided. The first three types of grant are available in all provinces and territories from 1 July 1996: targeted wage subsidies, self-employment assistance, and job creation partnerships. The other two types of grant are to be tried out in certain regions before being offered throughout the country: targeted income supplements, and training loans and subsidies.[33]

One of the direct effects of the new *Employment Insurance Act* is that it allows for the establishment of partnerships with the provinces, with the aim of getting rid of duplication in labour force training and job development. In November 1995, the Prime Minister had announced that the Federal Government was withdrawing from labour force training. The Speech from the Throne of February 1996 reiterated this commitment.

On 30 May 1996, the Minister of Human Resource Development sent the provinces and territories a proposal offering them responsibility for active employment measures funded through the *Employment Insurance Fund*. In this context, the Federal Government offered to transfer about $ 2 billion to the provinces and territories to help the jobless to re-enter the labour market. Apart from the five types of grant mentioned above, the provinces and territories could provide the services linked to the labour market currently provided by the *National Placement Service* (NPS): preselection, job counselling and placement. Official agreements lasting three years could be concluded with the provinces as soon as the Act came into force on 1 July 1996.

The Federal Government's retreat from the field of training was to be spread over a maximum period of three years. In consequence, the Federal Government announced that it would cease to:

- buy training courses from public and private institutions (vocational training, remedial academic education, language courses);
- provide apprenticeship programmes (the classroom education element of these programmes);
- provide assistance to programmes of alternating work and study (the assistance programme for schools, colleges and universities had already been discontinued);
- provide assistance for workplace training programmes (assistance to employers for certain skills so that they could send their employees on training courses, and for members of designated groups had ended on 31 March 1996);
- fund training programmes as part of projects (the Government was funding programmes provided by third parties for skills acquisition, technical training, personal counselling, job counselling, job-seeking, placement assistance and client follow-up).

By the end of 1999, the Federal Government will have stopped all its labour force training activities.

The *Employment Insurance Scheme*, within which the management of active measures was offered to the provinces and territories, has become to all intents and purposes the sole source of funding for labour force training and job development. The programmes funded by the Treasury are not part of the transfer proposals. The retreat from the field of labour force training means that in three years' time, the Federal Government will not be investing any more Treasury funds in these areas.

Previously, the funds invested in training by the Federal Treasury enabled various categories of people not entitled to unemployment insurance to have access to training programmes and grants. Most of these people will be refused access to re-employment support grants. People receiving employment insurance payments or who had been receiving unemployment insurance payments in the course of the preceding three years will be the only persons to satisfy the criteria of eligibility for the active measures of the *Employment Insurance Scheme*. This is a major element in the new context of adult education and training in Canada.

4. Participation by Adults in Adult Education and Training

4.1. Data from the Adult Education and Training Survey (AETS)

In a country where education and training are under provincial jurisdiction, national data on adult education, continuing education, non-formal and informal education are relatively limited. It is even more difficult to try to find out from statistical data emanating from official sources how this field has evolved. That is why we have relied largely on analysing how labour market policies have evolved.

Fortunately, from 1992, the same definition of continuing education was used by Statistics Canada to conduct surveys of adult education and training (AETS) in the civil years 1991 and 1993.[34] In future, this survey is to be carried out every two years on a similar basis. At the present time, only the data referring to the civil year 1991 have been the subject of a number of analyses and publications. The AETS survey covering the civil year 1991 was also the source of information sent to the OECD on adult continuing education and training. The comparative analysis of the situation in certain Member countries of the OECD presented in the document *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators* describes the participation rate and the breakdown of participants in continuing education and vocational training as a percentage of the active employed population aged 25 to 64 years.[35]

The results of the AETS survey from Canadian publications rely on a different definition of continuing education. This designates it as "any educational activity linked to employment or personal interests undertaken by persons of 17 years of age and over". The population covered by the AETS survey is defined according to two criteria, age and type of educational activities pursued. Under the criterion of age, persons aged 17 years and over who are studying full-time with a view to finishing off their initial education are not part of the population in continuing education. On the other hand, people pursuing formal activities full-time who have passed the normal age of enrolment for this level of education are considered to be taking part in continuing education activities. Persons aged 17 years and over who are enrolled part-time in formal activities leading to the award of a certificate are part of the population said to be in *continuing education*.

All the activities of non-formal education (not leading to the award of a certificate), whether provided by educational institutions or other bodies, are held to be part of continuing education. Informal education (unorganized and unstructured), which it is difficult to quantify, is excluded from the definition of continuing education, and this rules out self-learning and on-the-job training.[36]

The 1992 AETS survey shows that 5.5 million Canadians aged 17 years and over (27%) took part in one form or another of education and training for adults during the year 1991. According to the calculations of Statistics Canada, the total volume of activity hours equalled 440,000 full-time students. The participation rate for reasons associated with work (20%) was twice as high as for education for which the reasons were stated to be personal interest (10%). There were more women (28%) than men (26%) taking part in such activities. This was particularly the case in independent learning, i.e., activities pursued without any form of support from an employer. On the other hand, women were somewhat under-represented in education and training activities supported by employers.

The results of the AETS show that the participation rate varies significantly according to the characteristics of the population. The previous level of education is the most obvious example: persons having a university degree are ten times more likely to participate (51%) than those with less than nine years of schooling (5%). Persons with more than nine years of schooling who have not completed higher secondary education also register a participation rate below the average (16%). Once a certificate of secondary education is obtained, the situation improves noticeably. Age is another important differentiation factor: between 17 and 44 years of age, the participation rate is above the average. Between 45 and 54 years of age, it is around the average (27%), but it then declines markedly among persons aged 55 years and over (9%). Half the people with an income of $ 40,000 or more take part in continuing education activities, compared with 20% of those whose income is below $ 20,000.

The labour market situation has some influence on the rate of participation in continuing education activities. Among the active population, the participation rate is 35%. Persons in employment (37%) participate more

than the unemployed (21%) and far more than inactive persons (12%). Half the employees in the public sector participate in education and training programmes, compared with 32% of employees in the private sector. Some sectors are clearly above the average: public services (61%), public administration (54%), education, health and welfare (48%), and finance (47%); other sectors are below the average: construction (23%), commerce (29%), manufacturing (30%), personal services, business and miscellaneous (32%). Managers and professionals participate more (50%) than office, sales and services staff, and far more than blue-collar workers (23%).[37]

4.2. Additional Analyses of the AETS Data

Additional analyses made on the basis of the same data, at the behest of the *Institut canadien d'éducation des adultes* (ICEA), reveal more closely the nature of activities supported by employers and independent activities (with no form of support from employers). In these additional analyses, the definition of the adult population differs somewhat from that of Statistics Canada; moreover, workplace or *on-the-job training* is taken into account. The participation rate is therefore higher than that established by Statistics Canada which was presented above. In fact, 1.8% of respondents had only pursued *on-the job training*. But the main interest of these complementary analyses lies elsewhere, in the description of the relative significance and characteristics of the various training situations covered by the AETS survey. [38]

The AETS survey enabled data to be collected on six different types of training. The first three types of training are supported by employers and are what is called here *workplace training*:

> 1) *Programmes of education* in educational institutions leading to the award of a certificate (supported by the employer).
> 2) Activities in the form of courses, workshops and seminars, or in the form of self-learning, organized or provided by the employer; in this case we use the term course to distinguish these activities from *training programmes*.
> 3) Training activities at the workplace or *on-the-job training*, called here on-the-job training.

The other three types of training are independent training, i.e., education and training pursued without any form of support on the part of an employer (training and employability development activities for the unemployed and those in receipt of social assistance are part of *independent training*):

> 4) *Programmes of education* in educational institutions leading to the award of a certificate (not supported by an employer).
> 5) Activities in the form of *courses*, workshops and seminars, or in the form of self-learning, neither organized nor provided by an employer.
> 6) Other education and training activities: leisure activities, personal development courses, hobby courses, etc.

Analysis of the data shows that the rate of participation in training activities supported by employers (19.2%) and *independent training* (21.1%) are two equally important sectors of continuing education.[39] During the year 1991, a certain number of respondents (6.4%) had also pursued activities in both sectors. Employers' support is often associated with activities which they have themselves suggested that employees should pursue: 55.8% of participants in *training programmes* supported by employers, and 77.3% of *courses* organized or provided by employers. *In independent training*, the reasons for enrolling in a programme are often associated with career or job (84.0%). In the case of courses, reasons associated with career or job (49.8%) and personal interest (47.8%) are more or less equal.

Among the activities supported by employers, participation in courses is the most frequent type of training (13.1%), followed in second place by *on-the-job training* (8.9%) and in third place by *training programmes* (2.6%). In independent training, *training programmes* come in first place (10.5%), in second place are leisure and personal development activities (7.3%) and in third place *courses* (6.6%). The rate of participation in *training programmes* is thus four times as high in independent training (10.5%) as in activities sponsored by employers (2.6%). On the other hand, the rate of participation in courses is twice as high in activities organized or provided by employers (13.1%) as in independent training activities (6.6%).

In order to see the size and relative importance of the different types of training activity in continuing education, let us summarize the situation. It can be estimated that around 3.9 million people take part in *courses*: 2.6 million in activities organized or provided by employers, and 1.3 million in activities with no form of support from an employer.[40] It is estimated that 2.6 million people pursue *training programmes*: 2.1 million with no form of support from an employer, and 0.5 million with an employer's support.[41] Workplace training (*on-the-job training*) is received by 1.8 million people, and 1.4 million take part in leisure activities or personal development courses.

If courses are organized or provided by employers, the activity generally takes place at the workplace (43.4%). Some courses are given in a training centre (21.4%), and 14% in educational institutions (schools, colleges and universities). A significant number of courses are also provided in other places (36.4%). The relatively limited role of educational institutions in this expanding sector is confirmed by the question relating to the origins of the trainers. Company employees give 41.0% of courses, and consultants 40.7%; trainers from educational institutions teach only 16.8% of courses. In the case of courses with no support from employers, educational institutions play a more important role. Around half of these activities then take place in schools, colleges and universities.

Of the *training programmes* provided by educational institutions, 80% are pursued without any form of support from an employer. In *independent training*, the universities come in first place (33%), followed closely by primary and secondary schools (32%).[42] Colleges teach 23% of *training programmes*, and trade and vocational schools 14%. Training centres have a very limited role. Support from employers goes mainly to the *programmes* of universities and trade and vocational schools (around 30% in each case). The *programmes* of colleges (20%) and training centres (17%) come next. Support for primary and secondary school programmes is negligible.

In workplace training, the main fields supported by employers are, among programmes: management and commerce (32.4%), and engineering, science and applied technology (26.6%). Among courses, management and commerce come first (28.8%), followed by engineering, science and applied technology (24.0%) and health sciences (16.3%). In independent training, among programmes, the main fields identified are the same, but they are less significant: management and commerce (17.5%), and engineering, science and applied technology (12.6%); the category "other fields" accounts for 30.0% of cases. Among courses, management and commerce come first (16.5%), literature and humanities second (14.7%), and engineering, science and applied technology third (12.7%); these are followed, with 10% each, by arts, health sciences and personal enrichment. In the category other courses, the main fields are leisure activities (34.1%) and arts (25.1%).

In at least 83% of cases, training is given wholly or partly in the form of classroom teaching in both *programmes* and *courses*, whether supported by employers or not. In workplace training activities, both programmes and courses, distance education is in fourth and last place among the methods suggested, after on-the-job training and the use of computers as teaching tools. In independent training, distance education is in third place, on-the-job training being used less. According to a specific analysis of the data from the AETS survey relating to distance education, "more than 240,000 adults chose this method of study in 1993, 35,000 distance learners more than in 1991".[43]

5. Global Indicators of the Model of Transition to Lifelong Learning

In a recent statement, the Superior Education Council of Quebec made the following observation:

> "The Council has examined the education systems of a number of the most important OECD countries, and has discovered that there are not many countries which have an education system that matches the definition which that organization has given to continuing education. The vision of continuing education as a universal, well-articulated system does not appear to be common. Similarly, lifelong education remains a distant prospect or a utopia which is still far from having transformed entire education systems.
>
> "In sum, there is a noticeable and almost universal absence of a global, integrated vision that would generally help to bring about a prospect of lifelong education - which would transform initial education - and would in particular encourage the development of a culture of continuing education - which is the normal inspiration behind adult education."[44]

Such an observation at least fits the situation prevailing in Canada. Between 1960 and the mid-1980s, the adult education system underwent major developments based mainly on educational establishments belonging to the various sectors and Ministries of Education. In the mid-1980s, the reorientation of federal and provincial policies shifted the priority towards the economic aims of matching the labour force to the needs of the market. There was a move from an adult education system based on educational and social goals to a system of labour force training and employability development, for which ministries with an economic remit were responsible (Ministries of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training).

At the same time, there was an increased growth in the role of the private sector, the development of partnerships between schools and business. Year after year, by way of, or under cover of, annual budget cuts, the financial resources allocated to adult education within the Ministries of Education were reduced, while those devoted to labour force training and employability development within ministries with an economic remit were expanding. The goal of fostering the culture of continuing education in the private sector moved governments to develop measures and programmes for businesses. Structures for participation and consultation with the private sector over public training policies and programmes were set up throughout the country.

The current political, economic and social orientation of the Federal Government and various provincial governments means that the crisis in public funding and the priority given to the fight against the deficit has produced a strategy of reducing government expenditure. The social security system is being called into question. Support for education, health and social services is being cut. The income support schemes (unemployment insurance and social assistance) are being trimmed and cut back.

The Federal Government has decided to restrict transfer payments for post-secondary education and payments made in connection with the social assistance scheme to their 1993-1994 level. It has also decided to withdraw from the field of vocational training and to end the investments which it was making for this purpose through the Federal Treasury. In consequence, Ottawa is throwing back on to the provinces and territories the decision whether to go on funding vocational training and job development programmes and measures, which it will itself have completely abandoned between now and 1999, at the latest.

A significant proportion of the federal training funds scheduled to disappear were being used to provide basic training and services to persons who were at a disadvantage in the labour market and/or were undereducated. The funds of the Employment Insurance Scheme which may be transferred to the provinces and territories will not satisfy the requirements of this category of person. People whose level of education is low (notably illiterate persons), people who find it difficult to enter or return to the labour market and, more generally, people who wish to improve their education or to develop skills by pursuing training activities provided by educational institutions will in future have far more restricted access to these.

The education and training needs of the categories of persons who are left out of account will not go away. The working document on social security published at the end of 1994 by the Ministry of Human Resource Development listed some of the most urgent of these needs:

> - Nearly three million Canadians can hardly read and write; four million others have difficulty reading continuous texts.
> - Each year, about 250,000 young people leave secondary school to enter the labour market; however, most of them do not pursue structured education or training which would make that transition easier.
> - Too many young people drop out of school before completing their studies; among these dropouts, many have never had the chance to acquire the skills and basic qualifications that would enable them to get a good job.
> - A large number of Canadians receiving social assistance, or earning low wages, would like to raise their levels of qualifications but have no means of doing so."[45]

Despite these general statements, in official utterances describing the education and training needs of adults, and aside from the consensus that basic education is the foundation for labour force development, there is a current tendency to restrict access to education, whether to literacy, basic education, generic skills acquisition or vocational training programmes, notably in secondary schools and community colleges. As the Institut canadien d'Èducation des adultes (ICEA) emphasised in a well-documented report examining and commenting on the adult education system, the effects of the policies currently being pursued by the Federal Government and a number of provincial governments will have direct repercussions on how the lifelong education model evolves in Canada:

> "Thanks to this new orientation, it can be observed that adult education is governed by the development of the economy, and that this phenomenon is principally reflected in the predominant tendency of both governments to stress the retraining of the labour force at the expense of basic education and a wider vision of education. This partial view does not permit the development of educational provision which would suit all adults and fit their diverse needs and educational careers. Both governments are thus helping to reinforce the dualization of society and the growing gap in terms of access to education between those with more education and those with less."[46]

By reducing the level of public funds invested in adult education and training, and by encouraging the development of a training market, the governments have succeeded in increasing the role of the private sector in human resource development. By reducing the public funds invested in full training programmes given in educational institutions in favour of tailor-made training activities, and through annual budget cuts affecting the services provided by educational establishments in various ways, the governments have forced adult education providers to compete among themselves and with other providers in the training market. The context in which training is provided has thereby been substantially changed.

This reorientation has taken place at the expense of educational provision which can meet types of demand other than those associated with the immediate requirements of the labour market, notably among certain categories of people who are undereducated or are at a disadvantage in finding a job. While this development can help to achieve the economic objectives pursued over the last ten years, it raises a number of questions about equity. In Canada, management of the demand for education which will match the growing, diverse needs of the adult population is, so to speak, unbalanced.

The comparative analysis produced by the OECD on job-related continuing education and training (CET), shows up the Canadian adult education and training system in relation to those of other OECD Member countries:

"In most reporting countries, the proportion of participants in CET is three-and-a-half to four times as large among those with a tertiary education as among those without upper secondary education. In relative terms, this difference is considerably smaller in Finland and Sweden, and much larger in Canada, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States."[47]

To paraphrase a statement made in the Report of the Superior Education Council of Quebec, an economic project that aims to *keep a country up to scratch* in an increasingly competitive world, must necessarily be matched by a social project that aims to *keep up to scratch* the greatest possible number of its citizens. Such a project necessarily has an influence on the mission of education, notably in the field of adult education and training. How can the diversity of adult education needs be brought back to the fore, and how can this demand be channelled into growth? These are some of the challenges facing all providers and partners involved in adult education and training.

NOTES

1. Béchard, Marcel (1995), Table 1, p. 90.
2. Statistics Canada (1996a), Table 2, pp. 22-23. This source relating to a previous year provides information on the pattern of education in 77 universities.
3. Statistics Canada (1996a), Table 6, pp. 36-37.
4. OECD (1995), Table P02, p. 131.
5. Royal Commission on Education, Ontariio (1994), p. 14.
6. Etats Généraux sur l'éducation, Québec (1996), pp. 24-25; Conseil Supérieur de l'Education, Québec (1996a), p. 70.
7. Canadian Cooperative Education Association, Toronto (no date), pp. II-XXI.
8. Statistics Canada (1996b), Table 1, p. 74.
9. Skof, Karl (1994), p. 61.
10. Statistics Canada (1996b), Table 1, p. 74.
11. Béchard, Marcel (1995), p. 81.
12. Etats Généraux sur l'éducation, Québec (1996), p. 90.
13. Human Resources Development Canada (1994), pp. 66-67.
14. Conseil Supérieur de l'Education, Québec (1996b), p. i.
15. The quotations about teacher training which follow are drawn from the following pages of these reports: Royal Commission on Education, Toronto (1994), pp. 20-21; Etats Généraux sur l'éducation, Québec (1996), pp. 64-66.
16. Statistics Canada (1996a), Table 66, p. 192.
17. Idem, Table 11, p. 46.
18. Mouelhi, Mongi (1995), p. 43.
19. Statistics Canada (1996a), Table 11, pp. 107-108.
20. The source of these data is the survey on changing work and income (January 1993) carried out by Statistics Canada. Cited in the article: Fournier, Elaine et al. (1995), p. 30.
21. Conseil Supérieur de l'Education, Québec (1996c), Annexe 4, Table 2, p. 109.
22. Idem, p. 31.
23. Conseil Supérieur de l'Education, Québec (1995), p. 31. This document proposes a framework for analysing the development of types of partnership between educational institutions, businesses and community agencies, and describes a number of experiences of collaboration conducted by educational institutions.
24. Human Resources Development Canada (1994), p. 24.
25. Conseil Supérieur de l'Education, Québec (1996c), p. 16.
26. Paquet, Pierre (1993), pp. 225-226. This section of the monograph summarizing the development of adult education policies in Canada is based on some elements of this text.
27. Employment and Immigration Canada (1985), p. 4.
28. Consultative Council on Adaptation, Ottawa (1989), p. 40.
29. Canadian Commission on the Validation of the Labour Force, Ottawa (1993), pp. 16-17.
30. Working Group on the Transition to Employment, Ottawa (1994), p. 151.
31. Human Resources Development Canada (1994), p. 24.
32. Le Devoir newspaper, Monday 4 December 1994, p. A4.
33. The description of the five types of payment is taken from one of the new Government's statements: Human Resources Development Canada (1996), pp. 19-20.
34. The Adult Education and Training Survey (AETS) is an analysis which supplements the monthly survey of the active population (APS) carried out among 73,000 households across Canada. The AETS for 1991 was carried out in January 1992, and that for 1993 in January 1994. For the January 1992 survey, of the 51,573 persons making up the population sample, information was collected from 43,328 individuals, a response rate of 87.9%.
35. OECD (1995), pp. 157-163.
36. The definition of the field of the AETS survey is described in an article in the journal of Statistics Canada: Couillard, Robert (1995), pp. 47-57.
37. For more information, see: Nobert, Lucie and McDowell, Ramona 91994), pp. 40-50.
38. The additional analyses described in this section refer to chapters 1 and 5 of: Doray, Pierre and Paris, Louise (in press). These two chapters provide comparative data on the situation of Quebec in relation to the rest of Canada.
39. The percentages are not cumulative, as participants may be taking part in more than one type of activity.
40. Some people may be counted twice, having been in both situations in the course of the year 1991.
41. Idem.

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42. It should be remembered that independent training particularly covers training activities and employability development for the unemployed and those in receipt of social assistance.
43. Berner, Rachel (1995), p. 35.
44. Conseil Supérieur de l'Education, Québec (1996b), p. 61.
45. Human Resources Development Canada (1994), p. 24.
46. Institut canadien d'éducation des adultes, Montréal (1994), p. 56.
47. OECD (1995), p. 157.

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Chapter 6

TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING IN SWEDEN

by KJELL RUBENSON

The purpose of this article is to present a short overview of the transition towards lifelong learning in Sweden. Like many other countries around the world, the educational scene in Sweden is undergoing profound changes and the learning society is no longer an abstract concept but a reality for an increasing segment of the population. Official statistics, policy documents and research reports will be used to portray the Swedish scene. However, when looking at Sweden it is important to keep in mind that although lifelong learning as a policy concept has as yet not received any serious consideration several developments conducive to its realization are taking place. Thus, it is more important to take a broader look at what actually is happening than to slavishly seek for the use of the word lifelong learning.

Before starting to outline the developments towards lifelong learning it should be pointed out that the level of education in the Swedish population has increased dramatically as a result of 30 years of extensive educational reforms.

Table 1. Level of Education in the Swedish Population 1994 by Age and Sex, Percentage

Age	Less than high school	High school	Post-secondary
Sex			
16-24			
Male	40	50	9
Female	40	51	9
25-34			
Male	21	55	24
Female	18	56	26
35-44			
Male	28	45	27
Female	22	47	31
45-54			
Male	36	41	23
Female	31	43	26
55-64			
Male	50	33	16
Female	51	34	16
Total			
Male	34	46	21
Female	31	47	22

In 1970 60 percent of the population in ages 16-59 had only a comprehensive education (7 or 9 years depending on age) by 1994 the figure had dropped to 25 percent. The present level of education in the Swedish population is presented in Table 1.

1. Initial Education

1.1. Preschool Education

With full employment and rapid economic growth in the 1960s measures were taken to increase women's labor force participation. Lack of childcare was seen as a major obstacle for women to join the labor-force and a major expansion of daycare and preschools took place. The number of daycare spaces tripled during the 1960's while at the same time there was a doubling of preschool spaces. In 1975 the Swedish *Riksdag* passed a Bill that guaranteed all six year olds[1] a enrolment at a preschool and that children with special needs would be able to start at four years of age. In an important step towards encouraging lifelong learning this policy was expanded in 1985 when the *Riksdag* decided that as of 1991 all children 18 month and older, whose parents were working and or studying, should have the right to a place in a daycare. Children not going to daycare are offered educational activities in what is called open preschool. In 1995 a further expansion meant that all municipalities must provide childcare for all children ages 1 to 12. As a consequence of these reforms the proportion of preschoolers attending daycare rose from 12[2] percent in the beginning of the 1970s to 50 percent in the 1990s.

There are major regional differences in the share of children receiving childcare. Thus it presently varies from 68 percent in Lund; a university town with the most developed childcare system of any Swedish municipality to 33 percent in Mullsjö, a small rural municipality. In the present economic climate with increased unemployment, emphasis on deficit reduction and resistance to tax increases it is very difficult for the municipalities to continue to increase the number of spaces for preschoolers.

1.2. Comprehensive Education

Sweden has had mandatory education since 1842. For the first 100 years major differences existed in the length and nature of education with regard to social class and urban-rural divide. The Swedish educational system was until the 1950s hierarchical organized in different parallel streams. In an effort to provide the same standard of education to all children regardless of, sex, class, ethnicity and place of residency, the parallel system was abolished and replaced with a comprehensive 9 year compulsory system that was fully implemented in 1972.

Although the trend has been towards gradual decentralization, the Swedish school system is quite centralized and the national curriculum provides guidelines for what is taught and how much time is spent on various subjects. The comprehensive school has replaced the earlier parallel system with a system of internal choices. The trend has been to defer these choices as late as possible. Since the introduction all students regardless of

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their previous choices are able to continue to the academic streams of gymnasium. The shift to a comprehensive system as well as recent curriculum changes can be seen as fundamental from a lifelong learning perspective. By delaying the choice of subjects and creating a more seamless system the opportunity to continue and or return have improved.

Of all students in comprehensive education 98.5 percent received their education in a public school. The average number of children in a class in 1993 was around 22 students. Four out of ten boys and three out of ten girls received some special assistance during grades 4 to 6. There were fewer students getting special assistance in the upper division, 21 percent of the boys and 13 percent of girls. The frequency of special assistance differed by social class and it was most common among those from a working class home.

Social class differences are also evident in the student's choice of level of difficulty in English and mathematics as well as in grades received (see Table 2). While close to 70 percent of children from upper class families and half of the children with a middle class background choose more advanced mathematics and English only 25 percent of those with a working class background made the same choice. Further the higher the student's socioeconomic status the better grades he/she would obtain.

Table 2. Proportion with Grades 4 and 5 in Final grades in Compulsory School year 9 in Swedish, Special Math, Special English and German by Sex and Socio-economic Groups. (After Educational Statistics Yearbook 1995: 41)

	Swedish		English spec.		Math spec.		German	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
Unskilled worker	11	30	18	29	31	20	28	34
Skilled worker	13	30	17	28	25	27	20	25
Junior salaried	22	47	38	36	37	33	31	37
Intermed. salaried	28	59	35	48	38	37	31	53
Senior salaried	38	70	45	57	45	54	46	53
Farmers Entrepren.	23	51	38	39	37	36	39	56
Other	17	38	26	41	35	32	31	44

1.3. Secondary Education

The Swedish secondary education system is presently undergoing major revision. The system that now is being replaced was introduced in 1971 through an organizational merger of two totally separate systems, the gymnasium and the vocational schools. The 1971 reform ended a tradition dating back to the middle ages where the sole purpose of the gymnasium was to prepare for university studies and most graduates continued to higher education. The system introduced 1971 had 3 to 4 years theoretical streams leading to university as well as two years theoretical and vocational streams that did not qualify for higher education. The internal streaming can be seen as a way of handling an increased demand for secondary education. Thus, today over 95 percent of those finishing comprehensive education continue onwards to secondary education.

A major criticism against the 1971 system was that the vocational streams were too short and did not provide the competencies required in an information economy. From a lifelong learning perspective it was also evident that several of the streams acted as dead ends with great difficulties for a student to continue his/her education. In the new system of secondary education all students will receive three years of education. There are 16 national programs as well as local and individual programs. From grade 2 there are different streams in most programs. The programs are organized around individual courses that are easy to change without having to alter the whole program. A subject will consist of several courses organized as modules. Students will be able to select different courses within the chosen program as well as from other programs that will guarantee a high level of individualization. In order to respond to individual demand and/or the local labor market local programs can be developed in addition to the national. Everyone under 20 years of age is guaranteed a place in the national, local or individual program.

Two of the 16 programs correspond to the previous theoretical streams while the other fourteen are vocational. At least a quarter of the time in vocational programs must be spent on academic subjects. As a result, all 16 programs satisfy the general entrance requirement to university. However, it should be noted that it would be difficult to satisfy the specific academic requirements for most university programs (see section on higher education below).

Despite far-reaching efforts there is still a great deal of social and gender bias in selection of programs (earlier streams). In the early 1990s 95 percent of the students in Metalwork were boys while girls made up 90 percent of programs for caring and social services. Chil-

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[1] Children start school in Sweden at the age of 7.

[2] If no reference is given the figure is taken from Utbildnings statistiskårsbok 1995 (Educational Statistics 1995).

dren from higher socio-economic classes select university preparatory streams while those with a working class background choose vocational programs (Ministry of Education and Science, 1992:46).

1.4. Content Method and Quality

Lpo 94, the recent reform of the curriculum for the comprehensive school, devotes an increased number of hours to foreign languages, provides more choice for student, as well as gives greater emphasis on "bildung". The stress in the most recent curriculum on "bildung" can be seen as an attempt to lay the foundation for lifelong learning.

Lpo 94 does not refer directly to the concept of lifelong learning. However, under the section "The main purpose of schooling" it is stated that as we are living in a quickly changing world it is important that the children learn to orient themselves in a complex reality with an ever-increasing flow of information. Knowing how to learn and the efficient use of new knowledge become essential. Thus, it is, according to *Lpo 94*, important that the pupils during the comprehensive years are given the opportunity to take initiative and responsibility, as this will develop their ability to work independently and solve problems.

The national curriculum for secondary education, *Lpf 94*, goes further and makes special mention of lifelong learning. Referring to an increased complexity and flow of information *Lpf 94* states: *By engaging in the studies pupils shall develop a base for lifelong learning.*

Lpo 94 as well as *Lpf 94* reflect the general sentiment among educators and policy makers that the main task of the school is to foster and develop the instruments a person will need in order to make sense of the world and being able to act- including the ability and motivation for learning throughout the life cycle. While there is total agreement on what shall be achieved there are major differences in how the school should operate in order to reach this goal. The different camps are organized along the traditional educational battle lines. In *Lpo 94* as well as Lpf 94 the development of the capacity for lifelong learning is seen to occur through providing the pupils with the opportunity to take responsibility and to have some influence over the daily life in school. *Lpo 94* (p3) states that the decisions on what takes place should be made in close connection to those involved. Some of the training takes place in the Student Association, which is receiving increased power.

Lpo 94 stresses the civil aspect, everyone should be socialized into some common values that prepare an individual to live and act in society. The role of the school to foster a global awareness as well as a concern for the environment is also stressed in the curriculum. It could be argued that what is occurring is a redefinition of civil education away from narrow national concerns to also incorporate a global and environmental aspect. This broader aspect of civic is not only fostered in the internal life of the school but also in the links between the school and "Organizational Sweden". The curriculum stresses the co-operation with popular movements and other voluntary associations. Thus, it is interesting to note that one of the supplements to *Lgr 80*, which is still in use, has the title ***The school and the voluntary associations*** (Skolöverstyrelsen, 1987). The supplement describes the history of the organizations and their role for civil society as well as how the school can co-operate with the voluntary sector in fostering democracy as well as finding new form for the internal life of schools.

2. Transformation of Tertiary Education

Higher education in Sweden is organized into 6 universities, 7 specialized institutions of higher education and 17 small and medium sized university colleges lacking permanent resources for research.

2.1. Accessibility of Higher Education

The 1993 higher education reform was the last nail in the coffin of the recurrent education era that started in the late 1960s with the U68 Committee that resulted in the 1977 higher education reform. The two reforms differ fundamentally in their understanding of universities, their culture, purposes and governance.

The 1977 reform aimed to incorporate all post secondary education into one and the same system. In order to enhance the links between the world of work and higher education, undergraduate studies were organized according to study programs classified from the perspective of future employment.

Local study programs drawn up by the universities or colleges themselves met regional needs. Separate courses acted as an alternative to many of the programs and have had an important continuing education function.

The idea of recurrent education grew out of the 1968 Government Commission on Higher Education and was introduced as a strategy to solve the problems facing higher education (U68, 1969a, b; SOU 1973:2). Thus, the primary force behind recurrent education was the question of how to create a constant good fit between student profiles, the competencies of the labor force, and the needs of the labor market (Lindensjà, 1981). Further, the question of numerous clauses was a driving force. Thus the most sensitive issue in the Commission's report was the introduction of complete restriction on the number of students that could enter higher education. Complete restriction would seem less threatening in a system of recurrent education and thus more likely to be implemented when embedded in this philosophy. The radical ambitions expressed in early reports from the Commission were considerably tuned down in its final report and in the reform Bill, and became more linked to hopes for "happy outcomes" than to concrete reform actions. The Bill that passed *Rikl sdagen* saw recurrent education more as an emerging model than as something that was going to be implemented directly

The 1993 higher education reform was polar different to the 1977 reform. Power was decentralized and higher education institutions could now choose their own study organization and special entrance requirements. The link to the labor market has been de-emphasized and the national study programs abolished. No longer is recurrent education and the adult a major concerns but instead the education of the traditional university student.

The 1993 reform can be seen as a final confirmation of a development that started soon after the 1977 reform. Instead of beginning the transition from a traditional system to a system of recurrent education according to the U68 model, the 1977 reform of higher education was the peak. The interest in developing higher education in accordance with the principle of recurrent education declined. There was particular resistance to the admissions rules that were said to favor adults This resulted in a change in rules making it somewhat easier to go directly from high school to the prestige programs (Bill 1979/80:158). The debate continued during the 1980s and a new system came into place in 1991 that further decreased the value of work experience (UHÉ, 1991:25).

As a consequence of the new entrance requirements, increased student spaces and increasing difficulties for young people to find jobs recent new entrants to higher education are substantially younger than before the change in entrance requirements. In 1993/94 close to half of all students were under 25 years of age, 30 percent were in the ages 25-34 and ten percent older than 34. This is still quite an old student population compared to other countries but the trend is towards an increase of the under 25.

When discussing the age structure in Swedish higher education it should be pointed out that the major change occurred before the 1977 reform and was a result of provisional changes to the entrance requirements in the 1960s. From around 3 percent of new entrants being under 25 years of age in 1965/66 the figure shot up to 17 percent in 1975/76 and continued to reach a peak in 1979/80 of 23 percent where after it started to decline.

Despite efforts to increase equality of opportunities the social selection to higher education has remained the same for the last 25 years (SOU 1993:85). The recent increases in available places have rather increased than decreased socio-economic differences. However it should be noted that class differences in entrance into higher education are lower in Sweden than most other industrialized countries (SOU 1993:85). Further, the differences are as high or higher among older students. The social inequalities are founded early in life and become visible in choice of subjects at the elementary level. They are enhanced by choice of secondary education and are in full bloom when it is time to go to higher education. It is important to note that even when young people from different social classes receive the same post-secondary education and similar marks those from the upper classes are still over represented when it comes to continue to higher education (Hammarstràm, 1996). The largest differences are found in longer programs and single courses. Class differences are most noticeable in professional programs like medicine, civil engineering and law. Those from lower social classes choose a shorter program and do not return for continuing education to the same extent as others. Among those born 1971, only three percent of those from a working background had started a program of at least 120 p (120 weeks of study) by the age of 21. Among those with an upper class background the figure was 21 percent.

Women are more likely than men to enter in to higher education are. There are large differences depending on programs. Women are still under represented in engineering although their share of new entrants has increased from 7 percent in 1984/85 to 20 percent in 1993/94. They constitute about half of the student population in elite programs like medicine and law and are over represented in teacher education and social work. However, the difference between women and men is declining.

Despite major attempts through career counseling and work experience during elementary and secondary education the differences between men and women have remained quite unchanged.

2.2. Bridging Mechanisms

The introduction in 1970 of the 25/5 scheme (25 year of age and at least five years of work experience) as a way of satisfying the general entrance requirement, remained for along time the only formal bridging mechanism. Later this was complemented with the higher education entrance examination. Regardless of background a person can write the test and depending on the score be admitted into any form of higher education as long as he/she also meets the special requirements for the specific course/program. These two schemes are a replacement for formal secondary education. So far no formal mechanism exists to grant accreditation for other than a high school equivalency. In the 25/5 scheme no attempt is made to assess what has actually been learned. The 1977 higher education reform included special quotas for adults. As discussed above these have been dropped as the interest has shifted from adults to the young.

2.3. Content and Method of Teaching

Recently there has been a sharp increase in the number of students in distance education and in 1993/94 they represented 9 percent of all students. To further stimulate the development of distance education a Governmental committee is presently engaged in organizing experimental programs within higher education institutions across the country.

Swedish higher education has had a strong emphasis on research but very little attention has traditionally been given to undergraduate teaching. This resulted in major criticism from students that forced the government to appoint a parliamentary committee on undergraduate education. In an attempt to improve the situation money has been made available for experimental projects aiming at improving the general situation. A major change across the university is the introduction of problem based learning that is now being developed for the training of psychologists, health professions, engineers etc.

In order to accommodate the large number of adults and part time students in the system it has since long been common in Swedish universities, particular in the social sciences, to offer evening courses, and to some extent, also over weekends.

2.4. Co-operation Between Institutions

Swedish higher education never developed the British or American tradition of continuing education and or extension units. Instead the continuing education has primarily taken place through single courses that have been part of the regular offerings.

Traditionally the universities have not been closely integrated in the community but rather had national and or international ambitions. An important role of the university has also been to be a critical voice in society. This is not to deny that in some areas, particularly technology there has traditionally been close ties to the economy. In order to increase the link between the community and the institutions of higher learning there are external representatives not only on the university board but also in several program and curriculum groups.

There are fundamental differences between the universities and the new medium and small university colleges. The latter have developed as local initiatives and are closely integrated in the local economy, too integrated according to their critics.

The fact that public educational institutions have the right to sell education directly to industry and public institutions have of course made them more responsive to the needs of these bodies. One effect of commissioned education that has implications for the regular courses is that the faculty gets experience from the outside world

2.5. Financing of Tertiary Education

All forms of higher education in Sweden are free. In order to cover books and living expenses a student can apply for student assistance. This consists of two parts, a loan and a bursary. Presently 75 percent is in the form of a loan and the remaining 25 percent in a non-repayable bursary. All students between the ages of 20 to 45 qualify, regardless of their parent's income, for study assistance. However, their own income effects the amount they can receive. To maintain the assistance there are strict requirements that the students have to receive passing marks in their courses.

The present system is set up to respond to the needs of the traditional young university students. As was stressed during the debates on recurrent education this system is not attractive to adult students and does not encourage a rotation between studies and work. It is not only the size of the amount but also the fact that it has to be repaid during a shorter time span that makes it less attractive for adult students. It is of interest to note that while student aid for adults was very much part of the discussion on recurrent education it has not become an issue in connection with the promotion of lifelong learning. The focus lies not on the linkages between lifelong learning and the finical arrangements but on specific concerns on how to finance education and training for the unemployed. Thus there is special study assistance for unemployed that can be used for upgrading to the level of secondary education that is substantially more generous than what is available at the tertiary level.

However, presently there is a proposal to integrate the various aid systems into one built on the same principle where one part would consist of a loan and the other of a grant. There would be a change in balance between the grant and loan portions with most of the support coming as a loan for the regular post-secondary students and for other categories a gradual increase of the grant portion with the largest grants going to those in most need, i.e. unemployed with a short previous education (SOU 1996:90). In addition to the support for longer studies there is short-term adult education assistance (for short courses and study circles at folk high schools and study associations, which is means tested).

3. Adult Education and Training

3.1. Provision of Adult Education

Swedish adult education can broadly be grouped in four sectors:

Popular adult education
Municipal adult education
Labor market training
Employer sponsored education and training

Municipal adult education offers an adult version of comprehensive and secondary education. The schools are under the auspices of local authorities but are funded and governed by state regulations and play a central role in the overall adult education policy. Labor market training is shaped by active labor market concerns. However, with a shift away from primarily vocational programs to a general increase of the educational level in the workforce, general adult education has, as discussed above, increasingly come to be used and financed under the umbrella of labor market training. Employer sponsored education and training is primarily driven by economic efficiency concerns and defined by the employer with more or less input from the employees. The state is involved to the extent that private and or public employers can receive funding under the active labor market policy to train people that are threatened by unemployment. The private sector also intervenes into the public adult education sphere through contractual arrangements whereby a public institution and or private industry purchases its education from a municipal education institution, popular adult education association or labor market training institution. In these situations the public institution is responding to specific company goals rather than the more equality oriented goals that are supposed to govern their activities.

According to the National Board on Popular Adult Education (*Folkbildningsrådet*), (1993, p. 14) popular adult education has three roles: as an agency of popular movements, an adult educator, and as a supporter of culture. It is further stressed that the distinctive character of popular adult education primarily lies in the pedagogy and methodology. The developments in Sweden during this century have resulted in a relatively unique and highly institutionalized popular adult education system with strong links to the popular movements, whose distinguishing characteristics, thanks to considerable state and municipal subsidies, are that courses are free and voluntary.

Popular adult education can be seen as a part of the corporate state, lying at the crossroads between civil society and the state. In accordance with Habermas (1989), one could say that thanks to a strong labor movement preconditions for organized democracy have been created at the crossroads between the system world and the life world through popular adult education.

Different providers have different goals, represent different cultures and ideologies, different governance structures and bridge the private public divide. Thus, to expect that they will all nicely fit into an overall system and be co-ordinated in a rational way is not realistic. Atomization rather than co-ordination characterize the "system". During the years attempts have been made, mainly at the regional and or local level, to create informal groups where providers can get together. Although this has provided some common space for discussions on how resources can be pooled to best respond to local needs, not much is happening. Increased interest in life long learning does not seem to stimulate further co-ordination between providers.

Due to the particular structure of adult education in Sweden the new initiatives are taking place within the established institutional structure. Thus new materials to be used for distance education etc. are mainly developed within these institutions. Participation figures for various forms of adult education 1975-1993 are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Participation in 1975, 1979, 1986, 1990, 1993 by Provider. "Adult Population" 16-74 Years of Age.

Provider	Year				
	1975	1979	1986	1990	1993
	n=10799	n=8749	n=3982	n=5232	n=5166
Total Participation	28,8	34,2	35,4	35,9	34,5
Study association	13,3	15,6	12,9	13,0	10,1
Employer	5,5	9,7	15,4	15,2	15,7
Regular-school system	3.1	1.7	1.6	1.6	1,0
Municipal-adult education	1,6	1,9	1,8	2,2	2,2
Union	1,5	3,6	3,1	3,2	2,7
University, College	1,4	1,5	1,5	2,1	2,6
Labor-market training	0,7	0,9	0,8	0,8	1,6
Correspondence schools	0,6	0,3	0,1	0,2	0,0
Folk high school	0,3	0,2	0,2	0,4	0,5
Radio TV	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,1
Other provider	5,1	5.5	5.9	3.2	3,3

The figures are based on analysis of data from Swedish Surveys of Living Conditions. Youth aged 17-19 in any type of full-time program and youth aged 20-24 in full-time program other than an elementary or high school program are excluded (Rubenson, 1996).

Up until 1960s adult education in Sweden used to be more or less synonymous with popular adult education (*folkbildning*) and was provided by various study associations linked to popular movements and folk high schools. With the introduction of municipal adult education providing adults with an equivalent to elementary and secondary education, the creation of an educational division within Swedish Radio and TV, and the build up of an organization for labor market training, adult education provision became differentiated. The 1960s adult education reforms brought this sector into the public policy arena and resulted in an administrative and funding structure that made adult education visible. This structure vanished in 1991 in connection with the government's general reform of governance of elementary and secondary education. Municipal education became part of the regular school system and is now a municipal affair. Popular adult education was moved out of the state bureaucracy and the governance handed over to a new board under the auspices of the providers of popular adult education. As discussed above the disappearance of adult education as a visible policy area could at the time be interpreted as a development towards a comprehensive recurrent education strategy. However, as the recent cuts indicate it makes the sector very vulnerable. The lack of leadership for adult education in the way that it existed before 1991 means that there is no forum through which the broad picture can be analyzed. Instead, various bodies are responsible for small segments of adult education.

The figures in Table 3 reflect the dramatic change that has occurred in the structure of adult education provision in Sweden over the last 20 years. The development towards an information economy with an emphasis on a highly skilled labor force has resulted in an explosion of employer-sponsored education and training. In 1975 5.5 percent of the adult population received some form of employer-sponsored education and training but by 1993 the figure had risen to 15.7 percent. During the same time erosion took place in participation in study circles arranged by study associations. From a high of 15.6 percent in 1979 the rate fell to 10.1 in 1993. In 1975 study associations represented 41 percent of all participation but by 1993 the figure was down to 25 percent. As a result an increasing part of adult education is outside direct influence of government policy and influenced by more narrow economic concerns

The Swedish "system" of adult education is very diversified and has a structure that enables it to respond to demands coming from civil society, the economy and or the individual. The shortcomings lie less in the structure of adult education and more in the allocation of resources to overcome structural inequalities and differences in capacity to make use of the adult education resources.

In Sweden inequality has mainly been discussed from a class perspective. As the society has become more heterogeneous following substantially increased immigration over the last 25 years ethnicity has gradually come to the fore. Today 16 percent of the population are first or second generation immigrants. Immigrants together with educationally disadvantaged were classified as target groups for adult education. Special provisions were made to encourage them to study Swedish and if necessary to improve their level of education. Study associations in co-operation with immigrant organizations conduct outreach work in homes and workplaces to try to recruit immigrants to adult education. Despite these and other measures to help them integrate into Swedish society immigrants regards themselves to have less opportunity than non-immigrants to influence their situation, are less connected to organized movements and political parties (Petterson, Westholm and Blomberg, 1989).

3.2. Changes in Organization, Content and Quality of Adult Education and Training

In contrast to particularly Anglo Saxon countries the level of professionalization in Swedish adult educators has been low. There still does not exist an association for adult educators. This has to do with the strong standing of popular movements and their adult education association. The only existing formal higher education program is for teachers in folk high schools and even this is not a necessity to be able to teach there. Those teaching in municipal adult education and labor market training programs are commonly trained as teachers in the general school system. In some instances they will have taken a special course in adult education and or done part of their practicum in an adult education setting. There are no formal requirements to be a study circle leader and the notion of professional is counter to the value system on which popular adult education rests.

The shift towards a stronger link with the world of work does not in itself imply a shift to a more narrow form of vocational education. In fact, trends of the opposite can be detected. In a time when educational qualifications, justifiable or not, are given increased weight in hiring decisions general education is taking on a new role as a labor market instrument. Thus, the Swedish government has just announced a major policy shift involving a reduction of traditional more vocational labor market programs and a large increase of spaces in municipal adult education.

3.3. Recognition and Utilization of Adult Education Achievement

Very little research exists on the long-term effects of adult education participation. Looking structurally there is no question that the creation of municipal adult education as a second chance has been very important for particularly women. One of five Swedes between the ages of 18 to 75 report that they at least once have been enrolled in municipal education (Jonsson and Gähler, 1995). Compared to males, women are almost twice as likely to be involved. One can argue that this form of adult education to some extent has compensated for earlier gender discrimination in the educational system.

The impact of adult education on the world of work has mainly been studied indirectly. Thus, as in most countries, there exists a correlation between level of income and participation in adult education. Further unemployment is lower among the better educated. This is no proof of the direct effects of adult education, as we have not followed the same individuals over time. In the 1970s and 1980s several studies showed that those that underwent labor market training got permanent jobs. Similar research in the 1990s arrived at a more negative conclusion. The differences have more to do with the labor market situation at the time than the quality of the education.

The interest in the effects of adult education is as much linked to civil society as to the economy. Bartail (1988) makes the observation that to understand the Swedish model and the democratic traditions one will have to look at the role of the popular movements and their study associations. Up until recently popular adult education provided an alternative route to education for large groups that were denied this opportunity by a class based hierarchical educational system (Arvidson, 1985). The Swedish Parliamentary Committee on Power (SOU 1990:44) concluded that Sweden, through popular movements, particularly the workers movement, possessed an alternative route to the elite. A large number of those following this route have been involved in popular adult education. Rubenson (1996) found that there was a strong relationship between level of political activity and participation in study circles. Those that were politically active were 3.5 times as likely to participate in a study circle. This might not be so strange but what is interesting is that a) this relationship did not exist for other forms of adult education and b) there was no link between level of political activity and level of education which supports the notion of an alternative route to power.

Only a limited segment of the adult education "system" offers any form of formal diploma and certification. Most of employer-organized education and training is not recognized outside the company. For popular adult education it has been a principle not to offer any form of formal recognition. However some study associations have started to issue a form of diploma for some of their offerings.

3.4. The Transformation of Work

Up until recently it was assumed that the Swedish tradition of active labor market policy had inoculated the country against rising unemployment. However, during the 1990s Sweden has experienced a skyrocketing growth in unemployment from a low of 1.5 percent in the beginning of the decade to 13.2 percent (9.8 percent openly unemployed and 3.4 percent in various active labor market programs) in the autumn of 1996. To this should be added the non-voluntary part-time workers that represents 6 percent of the entire workforce.

There are contradictory statistics on how much time Swedes devote to work. Part-time work is very common in Sweden, mainly among younger women, who when their children are small are allowed to reduce their working time to 6 hours a day. Consequently the average hours worked are only 1500 per year which with exception of Norway is the lowest among OECD countries (SOU1996:27). However, looking at full time employees the picture, according to a study by Statistics Sweden (DN, 1996-09-14), is different. On the average someone working full time has a working week excluding overtime of 40,7 hours. In Europe only Great Britain and Portugal have longer working weeks. Contrary to popular belief the working week in Sweden is getting longer and not shorter. Between 1985 and 1995 the average total hours at work increased by 100 hours.

The increased unemployment has reactivated the discussion on shorter working time. In Sweden this debate was originally framed within the context of the good society and seen as a welfare reform rather than a labor market instrument. Championed particularly by unions with a large number of women, a shortening of working time was seen as a way to improve family life and peoples' opportunity to engage in civil society as well as having an active and stimulating leisure time. The understanding was that the decrease in time should be financed by productivity gains with no change in wages. Today a shortening of working time is increasingly being viewed in terms of providing more people with gainful employment. However, despite strong pressure from its membership the official position from the Swedish Union Confederation (LO) is still to regard this as a welfare reform to be achieved over the long term.

3.5. Employer Sponsored Education And Training

During the last ten years employer sponsored education and training has become a central policy issue and Statistics Sweden yearly collects official statistics on the rate and extent of this form of adult education. During the first six month of 1995, 42 percent of those in the workforce received some form of education and training partially or fully financed by the employer. An average person spent three percent of his/her working hours in education and training or 6.7 working days per year (SCB, 1995c). Salaried employees participated more often than wage earners, 60 percent as compared to 32 percent. Sixty percent of those with a college or university education were involved but only 28 percent of those with a compulsory education. One of the more dramatic developments over the last 20 years has been the relative increase of women in employer-sponsored education and training. In 1975 the presence of males outweighed females but by 1995 women were over represented also in this form of adult education, 45 versus 38 percent. Immigrants from other countries than the Nordic are underrepresented. This is largely explained by where in the labor hierarchy they end up.

In the Swedish economic debate human capital is at the center of the debate. Together with a deregulation of the labor market the development and utilization of skills are widely being promoted as an important instrument to improve the competitiveness of the Swedish economy. Several Parliamentary Committees have addressed the issue. The 1990 Parliamentary committee on competencies presented a national strategy for how to improve the human capital (SOU: 1992:7). The focus of the Committee was primarily on employer-sponsored education and training. The Committee presented a series of reforms, some of which involved a stronger presence of the state in employer sponsored education and training. In a time of deregulation this suggestion was rejected and the whole proposal fell. With increased unemployment the debate shifted from employer sponsored education and training to the unemployed and those in danger of becoming unemployed and to the general level of education in the population. In 1995 a new Committee, with the task to present a strategy for a national improvement of the educational level among adults, was formed. In its first report, *A strategy for the elevation of knowledge and lifelong learning*, the focus is on the formal level of education. Following these recommendations *Riksdagen* took the decision to create 100.000 new spaces in the educational system. 90 percent of these are for municipal adult education and the remaining are destined for the small and medium university colleges.

3.6. Non Working Time

As increased unemployment is a recent phenomenon and Swedes in general still tend to see it as a temporary evil that will disappear, the discussion on non-working time is just about to start. So far there has mainly been suggestions on how to increase the opportunities for paid work.

3.7. Critical Life Transitions

Statistics Sweden has in three surveys followed those who left primary school in the spring of 1988. In the spring of 1995, 48 percent had a regular employment, 10 percent were unemployed and another 6 percent were in some form of unemployment program. Pursuing studies was the main activity of 29 percent of those who left primary school in 1988. Six out of ten of those who were gainfully employed had permanent employment. As many as half of those who left primary school in 1988 had been out of work at least once between January 1992 and February 1995. Among those that were unemployed in 1995 four out of ten thought that the possibility to get lasting employment within the following five years was rather or very small (SCB, 1996a).

In a similar survey statistics Sweden conducted a follow up in 1994 of those that graduated from secondary school in the spring of 1992. The main finding was that the decline of employment opportunities had hit young people hard. Since leaving school, 6 out of every 10 had been unemployed and one in five had been unemployed for more than 6 months. Studying became one way of postponing entry into the labor-market. Two years after graduation the most common job was working in a temporary position created under a labor market program. The survey found that working while attending school could be a way of improving the chances of gaining employment. Those that had worked during holidays and or before/after school gained lasting employment considerably quicker than those who had not (SCB, 1994).

3.8. Funding Adult/Continuing Education and Training[3]

For reforms to be effective, good intentions and bold policy statements are not enough. Unless reforms are accompanied by major resource allocations, they seldom amount too much more than rhetoric. The central role of adult education in Swedish educational policy during the 1970s is reflected in the amount of state subsidies that went to this sector. Thus during the period 1970-1980, and in particularly 1970-1975, adult education did well in comparison with the other sectors of education. For example, while actual resources for adult education increased by 76 per cent, resources for higher education decreased by 19 per- cent. In the last decade higher- and youth education have been the winners.

Looking at the situation within adult education, in the 1970s popular adult education received the largest relative budget increases. Since the early 1980s municipal adult education had the most positive development of the two. However, the vast expansion in the last couple of years has been outside the educational sector and occurred within labor market training as part of an active labor market policy.

Besides the general subsidies to education, including adult education, a special adult education payroll tax was introduced in 1976. The purpose of this tax is to provide funding for earmarked measures used to recruit the target group: adult study assistance and special funds for outreach activities. The resources for the different supports for recruitment increased substantially during the latter part of the 1970s and were 2.5 times higher in 1980/81 compared to 1976/77. During the 1990s the study assistance for shorter courses traditionally in popular adult education, was cut drastically. By 1995 it was 40 percent lower than when it was introduced in 1976/77. The provision for outreach activities has followed a similar pattern. There was a reduction in study assistance for longer programs although not as drastic. Special adult study assistance for unemployed has undergone a dramatic increase from 50 million Swcr. in 1985/86 to 2,856 million in 1993/94. As a comparison, only 950 million were spent for regular adult education study assistance.

3.9. Incentives for participation

The main instrument to reach those that tend not to come to adult education has been ear marked study assistance and outreach activities. That these measures have had a positive effect can be seen in the fact that the differences in participation rates by class and ethnicity are smaller in Sweden than in many other industrialized countries (Rubenson, 1996).

There is a general right in Sweden to educational leave. In order to focus on those most in need the pay has been separated from the leave in the act. Thus the various forms of publicly financed adult study aid are targeted to certain groups.

Table 4. Reading Habits, Swedes Ages 18-68, 1993 (n=2283)

	Use of Public Library	Reading Newsp.	Reading Books
Daily1	91	31	
Weekly	8	7	21
Monthly	22	1	17
Several times a year	39	0	23
Never	30	0	9

4. LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

4.1. Impact on the diverse learning environments

Reading practices are well developed in Sweden. *The Adult Literacy Survey* found that literacy and numeracy levels in Sweden were higher than in Canada, Germany, The Netherlands and Switzerland. To some extent this can be explained by the daily reading practices.

According to the *International Adult Literacy Survey* nine out of ten Swedes read a newspaper daily and 50 percent read a book at least once a week. Further, and very importantly the job tasks are organized in such a way that they provide considerable practice in reading for large segments of the workforce.

There are 376 library systems in Sweden. Most of these, 236 are municipal systems with a branch in each district. According to official statistics, on an average each Swede visited a library 8.2 times per year to borrow books. 220 new books per 1000 inhabitants are purchased each year by the municipal library systems (SCB, 1994b).

The employment office that has several branches in the larger municipalities mainly handles career counseling for adults. The various educational institutions also provide information but this tends to be specific to the institution.

The concept of learning organizations has been thoroughly discussed in Sweden e.g. in connection with the Parliamentary Committees on competencies (SOU 1992:7). The Commissions presented several case studies on learning organizations. Further the National Research Council for Research and Development of Working Life provides funds for companies to experiment with new forms of learning organizations.

While there is a lively and fruitful discussion around the concept of learning organizations, ideas like learning cities and similar concepts are not visible in the public discourse on lifelong learning.

4.2. Impact of the Media

The use of electronic media is spreading quickly and the presented statistics is most likely out of data already when it is being published. A recent report from Statistics Sweden (SCB, 1996b) on computer information technology in Sweden 1996 found the following.

- More than half of the Swedish population between the ages of 16-64 have used a computer. 50 percent use computers daily at work. 30 percent of males and 22 percent of females have used computers at home.
- There are large class differences in the use of computers in the home. 60 percent of executives used computers at home but only 15 percent of the workers.
- 8,9 percent of those with a computer at home used it to get information from various data bases, 8.4 percent for e-mail and another 5.4 percent to communicate with other computers.
- Every fifth employer sponsored course is a computer course. The number of participants in computer courses organized within popular adult education has increased 50 percent in the last three years.
- The number of computers in comprehensive schools have doubled in two years and increased by 60 percent in secondary schools.
- Increasingly computers are placed in the classroom.
- 20 percent of comprehensive schools and 70 percent of secondary schools are connected to the Internet

4.3 Public Debates on Adult and Initial Education

Since the Second World War, education has been a highly political issue in Sweden. For the Social democratic government the hierarchically organized educational system was seen as the pillar of the class based society. The fundamental reforms from preschool to higher education were all seen as measures to create a more equal society. Consequently much of the general debates on the educational system have been characterized by a reaction from the right demanding greater choice for parents, decentralization and warning against falling standards due to too much focus on the weak and average students and not enough concern for the gifted. During the short period in the early 1990s when the conservatives had the political power, reforms of this nature were introduced with a strong reaction from the opposite camp. Traditionally the two teacher's federations have been very much involved in the debates. There has been an ideological divide very much along political party lines between the federation representing the teachers in the comprehensive system and those representing teachers from the secondary system.

Nowhere has the political nature of education been more visible than in the area of adult education. Thus, the debate that accompanied the 1969 reform of adult education, in combination with general social developments, made the unions, LO and TCO take an increasing interest in adult education policy. The unions argue that two main themes attract attention to adult education: equality and justice. It further points out that adult education is one of several channels for moving society towards the ideological goals of the Labor Movement. In order to change the existing patterns of participation, LO demanded high priority be given to measures aimed at neglected groups. This was expressed in terms such as "A just distribution in the field of adult education does not mean equal shares for everyone, but more for those that have received less" (LO, 1971:206). Following Korpi's argument, a shift in the balance of power between social collectives and classes can be considered as a possibility in influencing both the distribution of opportunity between different classes in society and the social consciousness of the people (Korpi, 1978). Similarly, changes in power tend to be reflected in changes in social institutions and their *modus operandi*. Therefore, it seems reasonable to suggest that the increasing social power of the trade-union movement in Sweden can account for the state's altered ways of acting in adult education matters. Similarly, when the power of the unions declined in the late 1980s government policy in adult education shifted away from the strong commitment to equality.

The discussion above ought to have underlined the close link between adult education policy in Sweden and developments in the broader social, economic and political spheres. During some periods economic forces have more directly colored the policies, while at other times it is the ideology that has been in the foreground. These links are more visible and noticeable than is the case in the formal educational system. This can be explained by the long history of popular adult education, with branches in the popular movements, being involved in the collective struggle to create a more equitable and civil society characterized by a more just distribution of social, cultural, political and economic resources in the population. The recent decline in public support for study circles mirrors the changing value pattern in Sweden towards a society more concentrated on the individual.

5. Conclusion

Today's discussion on lifelong learning seems to assume that there exists a distinct and visible policy on lifelong learning. This is certainly not the situation in Sweden where the concept lacks any precision and is used as a phrase with no clear meaning. A bit cheeky, the general standpoint seems to be if education is good, lifelong learning must be even better.

There is a tension between lifelong learning as a planned strategy and lifelong learning as spontaneously developing pattern. A development towards the former would imply moving in the direction of recurrent education as the concept was used in the 1970s.

Presently the situation in Sweden seems to be that while lifelong learning is being established at the level of everyday reality it is not developing into becoming a concept for concrete public policy. This should not be interpreted as nothing is happening at the policy level. On the contrary, as has been pointed out above, the reforms of the preschool education, comprehensive and secondary education as well as the measures for unemployed are all in accordance with the principle of lifelong learning. What still is lacking is a comprehensive framework from which to address specific problems facing a part of the system. Further and most importantly, sectors other than education and to a certain extent culture are not considered in a perspective of lifelong learning. A conclusion might be that it is wrong to think about lifelong learning from a strict planning perspective and what is of interest is what happens at the level of everyday reality.

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[3] The figures are from Statsliggaren

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Chapter 7

TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING IN GERMANY

by WOLFGANG JÜTTE

Preliminary remarks

The political unification of the two German states on 3 October 1990 represented a decisive point in the postwar history of Germany. The unification came unexpectedly and at a breathtaking speed. However, the social process of unification took much longer than expected and is still continuing today.

Although both German states look back on a common history, their development was quite distinctive in the last forty years. The German Democratic Republic (GDR) was characterized by the fact that it constructed a socialist society, opted for a planned economy and a centralistic organization, the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) was a democratic state, directed towards a social market and organized as a federal state. These developments had considerable effects on the education systems of both German states. After the Second World War two different education systems were developed in Germany.

Although this situation opens up very interesting questions and aspects for our study, it nevertheless makes describing the situation extremely difficult. For example in many areas of the education system there are only separate statistics. In the following we will concentrate on the portrayal of the transition towards lifelong learning principally in the former FRG before 1990, often known colloquially as the "Old Lander (OL)". Explicit reference to the Länder of the former GDR or "New Lander (NL)", is made above all when the educational experiences differ.

In this description the main emphasis is placed on the West. The reason for this is not only that there is too little all-German data and information, but also that the education system, just as the other parts of society in the "New Lander," was strongly orientated towards the "Old Lander". The Eastern German transformation process was above all a process of adaptation to Western German conditions.

1. The transformation of initial education

1.1 Changes in pre-school education

Pre-school education for children between the ages of 3 and 6 takes place in preliminary and pre-school classes but above all in kindergartens, which are mainly (70%) private institutions and which receive public support. Attendance of these institutions is normally voluntary.

In the sixties pre-school education received new impulses. The significance of this educational phase for the promotion of equal opportunities was discussed intensively. However, no educational political changes were untertaken. So the age for starting was not lowered, but remained furthermore at 6. The number of kindergarten places for those between 3-6 years old rose steadily from around 385 (1970) to around 800 (1986) per 1000 children.

In the past there was no legal entitlement to a kindergarten place. However, parents demanded more kindergarten places, not least due to the rise in the number of working mothers. On 1 August 1996 a law came into force that entitles every child over the age of 3 to attend a kindergarten until he/she starts school. The provision is still not sufficient in all Länder.

The Western German regulation signified a step backwards for Eastern Germany, in so far as the provision of kindergarten places in the East was extensive. In the European comparison the provision of pre-school institutions in Germany is poor: there are not sufficient places and they are not free of charge. This raises the question of the equal opportunities.

1.2. Opening, expansion and differentiation of intitial education

Compulsory education

Compulsory education starts at the age of 6 and continuies for 9 or in some Lander 10 years. At the beginning of the 60s it was raised from 8 to 9 years and at the beginning of the eighties in some Länder to 10 years.

Structure of school education

The education system is divided into general and and vocational education.

General education

Pupils attend primary school (Grundschule) for four years. Primary schools have the same structure for all pupils and are thus comprehensive schools in the original meaning of the term. The organization of secondary school education in Germany has some peculiarities in international comparison: after being educated jointly at primary school, pupils are then separated to take 3 or 4 different paths in lower secundary school (these are, in particular Hauptschule, Realschule, Gymnasium) with their different leaving certificates (see annex 2). A hierachy of education is reflected in this structure of the (Western) German school system.

Demands for the selective structure of the school system to be overcome by introducing an integrated school system were first made in the 70s. It was stressed that the hierarchically structured school system in Germany is characterized by high selectivity and the exclusion of minorities. The selection process after primary school, normally at the age of 10, is heavily critizised. One feature of the education system in the GDR was that the hierachically structured school system was replaced by the socialist comprehensive school.

There are now several intermediate school types: model projects and comprehensive schools have been developed in some Länder. The interchangeablity between school types which were once strictly separated has also risen. Special orientation classes (Orientierungsstufen) were introduced and new options opened up in the school system.

Vocational training system

Characteristic for the vocational training in Germany is its "dual" form, i.e. its two places of learning: in the firm and in part-time vocational school. The main stress is on on-the-job-training in the company, which is supplemented by the compulsory attendance of a public part-time vocational college, usually for one day a week. In comparison exclusively in-school vocational training plays a far lesser role than in most other European states.

In Germany the "dual system" of vocational training is regarded as a "success story" and is also often propagated as an "export hit". Despite its doubtless merits, the "dual system" also faces difficulties against the background of economic crises and problems in the labour market. The number of apprenticeship places offered in industry is decreasing and there is currently a shortage.

Increase in the value of vocational education

The vocational part of the school system has been neglected. According to the intentions of politicians it should be further developed alongside the general school system. Although the recognition of the general and vocational school system is postulated, it does not de facto exist.

Although the general and the vocational schooling was also institutionally separated in the GDR, vocational education (Arbeitserziehung) was a fixed part of the contents of the general school system.

Participation in education

For decades there has been a steady development towards higher formal educational qualifications. While in the 50s only 5% of pupils left school with the secondary school-leaving certificate (Abitur), the figure is now over 25% (see annex 3). Attending a higher school (grammar school) has lost the elite character it once had.

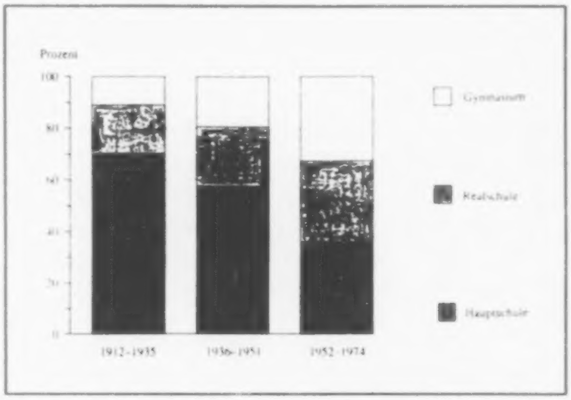
The level of formal education in Germany is at present higher than ever before. Younger groups of the population have received a longer, higher and qualitatively better school education (see figure 1). Not much is known about the effects of the rise of the level of education as far as contents are concerned (cf. Arbeitsgruppe ... 1994, p. 272). One indicator for the general rise of the level of education of the German population can be the number of people with knowledge of foreign languages. The proportion of people who can speak foreign languages has doubled in the last decades (see annex 4).

Equal opportunities and social selection

Since the debate on equal opportunities in the 70s groups of the population who are at a disadvantage (women, working-class children, rural population) have in particular received more support. There has been a significant improvement, but social handicaps are still reflected in the education system.

While in the 60s women were even more underrepresented in the higher secondary schools, today the number of women gaining secondary school-leaving certificates is slightly higher than men.

Figure 1: Population according to year-of-birth groups and the highest school-leaving qualification 1992 (Old Lander)



Source: Albus 1992, quoted from Arbeitsgruppe 1994, p. 271

Pupils with foreign nationality

Although Germany has developed de facto in the last two decades into an immigration country, large political groups refuse to define it accordingly. In 1993 around 6.8 million people of non-German nationality lived in Germany (8.5% of the total population). The biggest group were the Turks (32%), followed by people from the former Yugoslavia. In total 22% of all non-Germans come from member states of the European Union. More than a quarter (27.4%) of all foreigners have already lived in Germany for twenty years and more.

In the last two decades an irreversible development of German society towards a multicultural society has taken place. This can be said above all for the big cities. In Frankfurt 279 of every 1000 inhabitants are foreigners, in Munich the figure is 223 and in Cologne 1981.

Within a short period of time the education system was forced to react to ethnic and cultural minorities. Various supporting measures (such as mother tongue instruction) were introduced for foreign children. In 1993 9% of the pupils were foreign nationals. The percentage of foreigners differs greatly between the Ländern. In Eastern Germany it is only between 0,1%-0,5%. It also differs greatly between the regions. The majority of migrants live in the industrial areas and big cities (e.g. Berlin). Schools in these regions have classes in which more than half of the pupils are foreign nationals.

Although in the last thirty years foreign pupils' participation in education and success at school has risen, there are still considerable differences between German and non-German pupils. Due to the present crisis of the labour market non-German pupils have considerable difficulties in getting an apprenticeship or a job.

The integration of children with disabilities

The question whether handicapped pupils should receive separate schooling or be integrated in the normal school system is a matter of controversial discussion. The integration of the physically handicapped in the normal school system is rising hesistantly, mainly at the insistence of the parents of handicapped children.

Half-day care and half-day teaching

The schools in Germany are half-day schools. Only 5% of pupils attend an all-day school. Lessons normally take place in the morning between 8 and 14 h. Although kindergartens have extended their opening hours they remain essentially half-day kindergartens. The traditional model, whereby only one parent is employed, is reflected here. However, due to changes in family structures ("loss of function") and increasing number of working mothers this model seems to be obsolete. The demand for all-day provision is rising and can by no means be covered by the existing institutions. In the GDR all-day provision was far more developed.

Out-of-school education for young people

In addition to school, company and family, a network of institutions for young people has been developed which takes on the task of the out-of-school education of young people. Its organizational structure is similiar to that of adult education: plurality of providers, variety of provision and voluntary participation. Providers are mainly the youth organizations and local authorities (youth welfare departments). Apart from political education there are also holiday camps, leisure-time activities and international exchange programmes. Out-of-school education for young people mostly takes place in youth centres, educational centres and leisure-time institutions. Since the 60s this area has experienced increased professionalization. In the GDR there was a wide provision of out-of-school education for young people (young pioneers, FDJ etc.) and is was part of the teacher's job. These structures collapsed after unification.

1.3. Changes in the content, methods and quality of initial education

Whereas the main focus in the discussions on reform in the 70s and at the beginning of the 80s was still on the issues of the school structure and its contribution to equal opportunities, it has now shifted towards issues of the internal structuring of the schools. Interest has shifted from a quantitative towards a further qualititative development of school education.

Teaching objectives and content

Within the context of the educational reforms of the 70s the curricula were also modernized. The educational contents of the different secondary school types were brought closer together. A central characteristic of the school curricula was the "science orientation".

The curricula are revised regularly. Due to social changes it is considered necessary to cover new areas. There is a increasing necessity for new transversal tasks in the various subjects, such as health education, basic education in information technology, environment education, foreign languages, intercultural education and the European dimension for example. The integration of school subjects is coming to the fore.

Teaching organization and methods

In the last 15 years the organization and methods of teaching have changed. This is particulary true for primary education (Grundschule) and lower secondary school. Didactic teaching (chalk and talk) has disappeared, the organization of lessons has become more flexible, pupil-orientated "open" lessons with "open teaching talks", project work and process orientated learning entered the school.

This transformation of the daily learning world has been fostered by the fact that the size of classes has decreased considerably in the last three decades. The Grundschule and Hauptschule have gained from this in particular. While in 1960 a teacher still had to teach an average of 35.7 pupils per class it was only 17.9 in 1990 (see annex 5).

As a consequence of the changes in the living conditions of young people, the gap between school and life is widening. Young people experience the distance between school and the areas of working and living more and more clearly. As expierence shows, traditional teaching forms had reached their limits. Not least the growing "experience orientation" of society requires new teaching methods. The increasing heterogenity of children and young people also requires a stronger individualization of the teaching-learning process.

The Lifelong dimension and the ability to teach oneself ("Learning to learn")

In the reform period of the 70s "learning to learn" was recognized as an important principle, i.a. in the blueprint of the education reform the "Structural Plan" (see Chapter 5.2). Schools should not only impart knowledge and skills but also the ability to learn again and again. Schools should "arouse enjoyment of continual learning" and lay the foundation for "a process of lifelong learning" (Strukturplan ... 1970, p.33).

The self-concept of school is changing further. More recent documents are based on a new concept of school, "that school education is not only seen as way to achieve

pre-defined objectives, but that school should be viewed as a place of learning and living, in which education also takes place with autonomous involvement" (Zukunft der Bildung ..., p. XXIV).

In the debate on the objectives of school education "key qualifications" are becoming a central term. Learning contents which transcend subjects, such as independence, creativity, ability to make decisions and to communicate, social competences (ability to work in a team) are increasingly stated as teaching objectives.

Civic education: social participation as a cititzen

Schools should motivate for active participation in society. This is also reflected in the teaching objectives. Democratic principles have entered schools. Pupils and parents have received more rights and possibilities for participation, e.g. school councils with representatives from the bodies of teachers, parents and pupils; from the age of 14 (Bayern 18) pupils decide by themselves whether they want to attend religious instruction; in many schools school magazines are published by pupils, which can not be censored, etc.

The educational function of school

While in the past the instruction and training function of schools was stressed, in the last years attempts to revise the educational and social integrative role of the school can be observed. The intention of more recent educational policy documents is that the educational task of the education system should be strengthened. This can be explained against the background of changes in socialization and the rapidly changing living situations of children and young people: more and more children are growing up as only children and/or in one-parent families (10%), increasingly both parents work etc.

Changes in the organization

The organization of schools is changing. The new key term is "school autonomy", i.e. the strengthening of the individual school is intended. Through growing possibilities for participation both schools and higher education institutions are to gain their own profile and contribute to the development of "regional school landscapes". The quality and effectivity is to be improved by the growing freedom of those directly involved. But with this the demands on teaching are also rising.

1.4 Changes in the role of teachers, their qualification and further training

Teacher training is arranged very differently in the individual Lander. Since the 70s it has been integrated into the universities more and more. Currently a fundamental revision of teacher training and further training is being discussed because the situation is regarded as unsatisfactory. **Due to the social and societal change the teacher is faced with new pedagogical tasks. This leads** to changes in teachers' job outlines and new demands on further training.

All teachers are required to undertake further training regularly. The various Lander have their own further training institutions for teachers some of which are of a high standard. In the old Ländern on average one in two teachers takes part in a further training programme during a school year. Trends in the age structure of teachers in Germany (see annex 6), show as a consequence of the pro-cyclical personnel policy a considerable "over-aging" of teachers. At the same time this development indicates the importance of continuing education for teachers.

2. The transformation of higher education

2.1 Extension, differentiation and opening up of higher education

Institutions

At present there are a total of 318 institutions of higher education, which apart from a few exceptions are maintained by the Länder. The most important of the higher education institutions are the universities.

At the begining of the 1970s the Fachhochschulen (Polytechnics) emerged as a new type of higher education institution from the former schools of engineering. The gap between the universities and the Fachhochschulen, which offer three or four-year courses of more practice-related vocational education, has been closed in the last years. The Fachhochschulen have extended the higher education system and brought differentiation to it. The role of the 153 Fachhochschulen is to be strengthened further.

In the last two decades a regionalization of higher education took place. This process was directed at regional development and was to make a contribution to equal opportunities, because many students prefer institutions near their home. Accordingly, in the last two decades higher education institutions have also been established in the border regions (see annex 7).

1976 a "distance university" was established in Hagen, where around 35,000 students were enrolled, mainly part-time, in 1992.

Increasing access

There are several routes to higher education. 70% of those taking up higher education had the Abitur certificate, which is normally awarded by the grammar school (Gymnasium) after 13 years of schooling. The Abitur certificate can also be obtained at a specialized grammar school (Fachgymnasium), but then only entitles the pupil to study in those subjects in which the Abitur was obtained (this is called fachgebundene Hochschulreife, i.e.: subject-restricted higher education entrance qualification). Apart from this, there is also the Fachhochschulreife, which only entitles the school-leaver to study at a Fachhochschule.

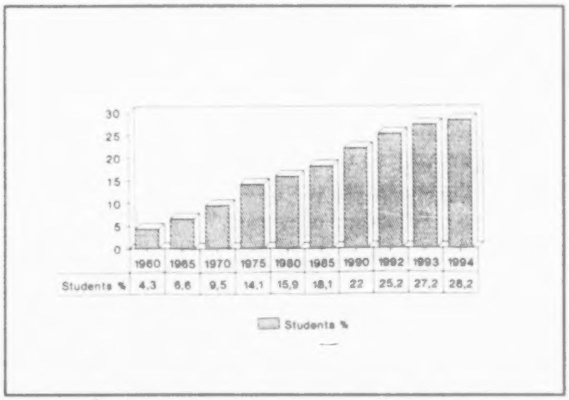
Partly in order to promote the attractivity of vocational education offered by the "dual system" there are efforts to grant access to higher education to people with working experience. The "policy of opening up higher education" articulated by the education policy is in practice however still restrictively handled.

Although in principle people with the general entrance qualification can choose their course and institution of higher education freely, there have been entry restrictions (Numerus Clausus) for courses which are in particular demand (medicine, economics, etc.) and certain higher education institutions since the end of the 60s. In 1972 a Central Office for the Allocation of Study Places was established, which allocates the places on certain courses according to a fixed distribution key. A small quota is reserved for special target groups (e.g. four or five percent for foreign students).

Expansion

In the last two decades the demand for higher education has risen steadily. The number of students beginning courses has more than doubled. 1,9 million are now studying at the Fachhochschulen and universities. While in the 50s only 6% of a given year/age-group studied, at present 29% of a given year/age-group decide to study (see figure 2). According to forecasts it will be 35% in the year 2000. The proportion of students in the total population is 2.3 percent (which is below the European average of 2.76%).

Figure 2. Student Enrolment in the Higher Education System (OL) 1960-1994



Source: Basic and Structural Data 1995/96, p. 75

Participation in higher education has been made accessible to larger groups of the population.

Profile of students

Those beginning to study after former vocational education

The steep rise in the number of new students points to another phenomenon which can be observed in the last years in particular. 2 out of 5 students first do an apprenticeship after gaining their secondary-school leaving certificate (Abitur) and then start to study (see annex 8). They are seeking a double qualification (apprenticeship and university course).

Social and sex-specific differences

While in 1960 only 28% of the students at universities were women, in the following period their percentage rose steadily, stagnated in the 80s and was 42% in 1992. Handicaps for women are seen above all in higher degrees (doctoral degree). In comparison, in the GDR the proportion of women was significantly higher from the 50s onwards.

While at the beginning of the 60s the proportion of working class children attending university was only 5%, it had tripled to 15% by 1980. Since than it has decreased and is now stagnating around 12%. The reasons for this are varied. Research shows that the social background and in particular the previous education of the parents plays a central role. This makes it possible to talk about "education heredity".

Shortages of materials and personnel

While the number of students has risen by 75% since 1977 the number of the places on courses has only increased by 10% and teaching staff only by 6%. At present around 1.9 million students are enrolled in higher education institutions, which officially only have 960,000 places. This means, that on average two students have to share one place. There is a lack of money for urgently needed higher education buildings (lecture rooms, libraries etc.). Seminars with more than 100 students are not rare for certain courses. This "mass dispatch" has a lasting influence on the structuring of the contents of the higher education system. The student-teaching staff-ratio which has deteriorated since the 70s has a negative impact on the quality of teaching.

The "overload" situation in higher education was seen for a long time as only temporary problem, which would solve itself as it were as a consequence of the falling birth rate. Here the dynamics of the demand for higher education was underestimated. This evaluation had to be revised in the following period.

2.2 Changes in the organization, contents and methods of teaching and learning

Organization

The German higher education system is orientated towards the concept of the "full-time student" (with the exception of the distance university). There is no special provision for part-time students like in other countries.

Lectures take place approx. 7 months of the year.

The remaining 5 months are normally free from teaching and are used to evaluate material received in the classes, prepare for examinations and undertake periods of work experience.

In comparision to the school system the higher education system has a relatively high degree of autonomy. The organization of courses is, when compared internationally, very liberal. The principle of "academic freedom" is valid for teaching and learning and gives the teaching staff and students a large amount of freedom.

Although most courses are broken down into a "basic course" (Grundstudium) and a main course (Hauptstudium) this is not comparable to the graded organization (undergraduate - graduate) in Anglo-Saxon countries. A stronger differentiation of content and organization is currently being discussed in the context of a study reform. The liberal organization of courses is seen as one of the reasons for the long period of time spent in higher education. A considerable number of students (according to estimations 25-30%) drop out of higher education without obtaining a degree.

Reform of Higher Education

The Federal Government and the Länder are striving for a structural reform of studying; some Länder have already passed new higher education laws. There is a consensus of opinion that the periods of studies should be drastically shortened.

Most courses at universities are planned to last 4-5 years and at Fachhochschulen 3-4 years. However the actual duration is much longer, especially at the universities where it is on average 6.8 years (13-14 semester). As a consequence the typical student - especially in the European/international comparision - goes into working life late at the age of 28. It is argued, that due to the freedom of movement on the European labour market, the German higher education leavers should enter the labour market earlier in order to be competetive. According to the intention of the Federal Government and the L‰nder higher education should last only up to 10 semesters (5 years) in the future. The reduction of the time spend in higher education is to be achieved mainly through the differentiation of higher education into theory-related, courses qualifying for a profession on the one hand and the training of succeeding generations of scientists and academics on the other hand.

A reason for the long duration of study is certainly the inadequate "mass dispatch" in higher education. However, educational experts also agree that a structural reform will remain ineffective without a reform of the learning contents.

Curricula and the "quality of teaching"

Weak points in the organization of higher education are also pointed out in the context of longer courses. The curricula are overloaded, the lectures and seminars are poor from a didactic point of view and methodical monocultures are predominant. Innovative and interdisciplinary forms of teaching and learning, such as project study, are seldom.

Critics describe higher education as being hostile to learning and point to the immanent tendencies to become like schools ("overloaded" curricula), they are afraid that the universities are developing into "learning companies", in which only codified knowledge is imparted. Whereas due to the changed organization of labour in working life (technical) knowledge is much less important than abilities such as creativity and social competence. Here too the plea for imparting key qualifications is emerging.

The issue of the "quality of teaching" is coming into the fore in the debate on the higher education system. Different approaches, concepts and methods for the "improvement of teaching" are being developed. At the same time more emphasis is being placed on evaluation. But here it is also true that a fundamental "improvement of teaching" cannot be achieved without a change in the underfunding ("overcrowding") of higher education.

2.3 The transfer of contents from primary study courses to continuing education

In the context of the debate on shortening the amount of time spent studying the possibility of differentiating between primary courses ("trunk education") and modular continuing education courses is also being discussed. In the primary courses the parts of the curricula are then reduced and supplemented by a continuing scientific/academic education system. In doing so, the rapid development of the sciences and the growing scientific influence in the world of labour can be taken into account. Science and world of labour could be related to each other better through this new organization.

This requires, however, a differentiated system of continuing scientific/academic education. It will gain importance if intentions to shorten the amount of time spent in higher education are carried out.

2.4 Continuing education in science as new area of responsibility

Continuing scientific/academic education by higher education institutions is still marginal in Germany. A maximum of 10% of continuing scientific/academic education is supplied by the higher education institutions. In the former GDR the system of the vocational continuing scientific/academic education was far better developed.

The continuing scientific/academic education is often not part of the self-concept of higher education institutions although this task is now explicitly given to them by the Framework Act of Higher Education of 1976

(1985) and by the individual laws on higher education of the Länder. The amount of continuing scientific/academic education is still low, concentrated in individual higher education institutions and directed mainly at people with an academic degree.

But the higher education institutions- above all the Fachhochschulen - have been fulfilling this task increasingly in the last years. The focus is on the areas of technology, natural sciences and economics. Industry in particular is demanding a closer cooperation with higher education. So the issue of technology-transfer is becoming important above all for medium-sized and smaller enterprises. Higher education institutions can make a contribution to the development of the region by means of continuing scientific/academic education.

It can be expected that the institutions of higher education will steadily extend their provision of continuing scientific/academic education in the next years. However, as long as the "overload" situation in higher education with high numbers of students continues and as long as the Lander do not give stronger financial incentives, continuing scientific/academic education will not be one of the central tasks of higher education.

2.5 The relationship between the financing mechanisms and changes in the clientele of universities

At the beginning of the 70s the at that time relatively low tuition fees were abolished. Although at present no tuition fees are charged, studying requires considerable financial resources. The average costs of living whilst studying amount to DM 94,400 (1995).

To promote equal opportunities the Federal Training Assistance Act (BAFÖG) was passed, in 1971 to support students from families with low income. The law has a subisidiary character. It gives an entitlement for individual finanical aid, if there is a need (i.e. according to the income of the students and their parents). In the last years this law has experienced numerous amendments and support has been dismantled step by step. While 1.3 million pupils and students were financially supported in 1981, it was only 505,000 in 1986. This drop was a consequence of the fact that support for pupils was dismantled. Since the mid 80s the payments were no longer given only as grants, but increasingly as interest-free loans. Further cuts can be expected. In the GDR all students received a scholarship, additionally there was a broad net of social services (student housing etc.).

Currently one half of the money is a grant, the other part is an interest-free loan. In 1992 around 76% of the students in the new Länder and 33% in the old Länder were supported by BAFÖG. Apart from this there is still the possibility of scholarships from institutions which support the education of the gifted. The 9 foundations supported 15,011 students in 1993. The scholarships are funded by the Federal education ministry.

The influence of changes in funding on attitudes towards studying can not be verified definitely. However, it can be assumed that plans to open the higher education system to social lower strata formulated in the reform period have perhaps not taken a step backwards, but they have come to a standstill. It is currently being discussed controversially whether tuition fees should be introduced once again due to underfunding of higher education.

3. The transformation of adult education and training

3.1 Areas, institutions and participation in adult education

Areas

Compared with other areas of the education system continuing education is characterized by its heterogeneity. There is a wide range of continuing education provision which differs greatly as far as its aims, subjects, organizational forms and duration are concerned. As a rule one can distinguish - i.a. due to the historical development and differences in funding and legislation - between two large areas of education: general and political adult education on the one hand and vocational continuing education (dealt with in more detail in Chapter 3.4) on the other hand.

Providers

The variety of the subject areas and organizational forms is reflected in the institutional structure of continuing education in Germany. It is shaped by its "pluralistic character". A variety of providers offer a wide range of different subjects. Providers of continuing education are in particular:

- community adult education centres (Volkshochschulen)
- churches
- trade unions
- political parties
- chambers
- professional associations
- companies
- employers' associations
- state, Länder and local authorities
- commercial institutions
- alternative and voluntary groups
- institutions of higher education
- institutions of distance education
- media (radio and television broadcasting organizations)

The most important providers of general and political continuing education are the community adult education centres (Volkshochschulen). In many Länder the local authority is obliged to provide a community adult education centre in order to guarantee basic provision and they are taken into account in many laws. In 1994 approx. 6.4 million people took part in their 489,000 courses. They offer a wide range of subjects; this is also true for other institutions, e.g. the churches (see annex 9).

There are various criteria which can be used to systematize the diversity of providers in the continuing education landscape in Germany. A significant criterion in order to distinguish between the continuing education providers is their degree of "openness" (cf. Hamacher 1976, p. 50). Whereas in "closed" continuing education

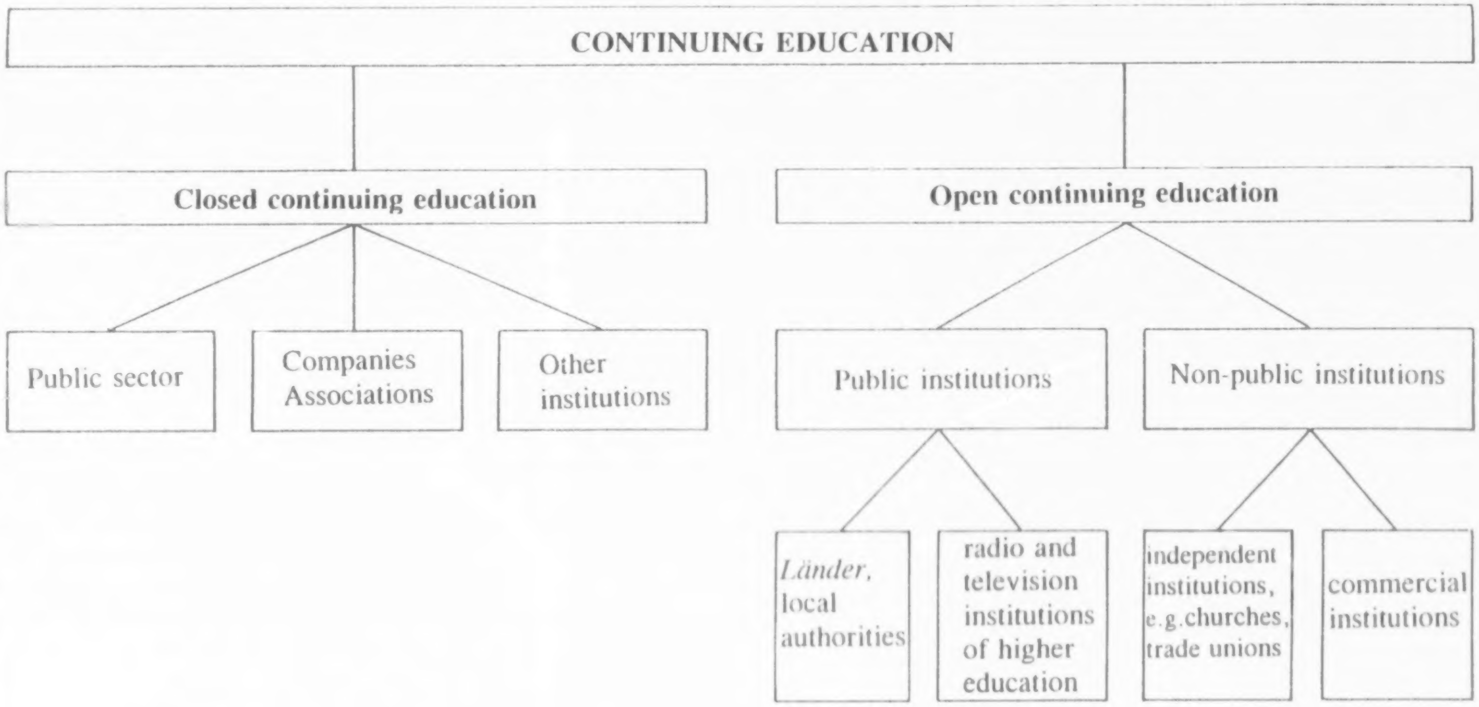

CONTINUING EDUCATION
Closed continuing education
Open continuing education
Public sector
Companies Associations
Other institutions
Public institutions
Non-public institutions
Länder, local authorities
radio and television institutions of higher education
independent institutions, e.g. churches, trade unions
commercial institutions

Figure 3: "Closed" and "Open" Continuing Education

Source: Hamacher 1976. p. 51

the provision is only available to members of these institutions, the provision made by "open continuing education" is "open" to everyone (see figure 3).

Participation in continuing education

In the last two decades continuing education in Germany has become considerably more important and significant. Education experts predict that continuing education will experience a further boom in the next years. The area of continuing education therefore constitutes the educational sector which expanded the most within a short period of time and is being developed further at the moment.

This is confirmed by the data of the Report System Continuing Education. Every three years since 1979 Germans aged 19 to 64 have been questioned about continuing education in representative surveys. According to these surveys (cf. Kuwan 1996) the participation of adults in continuing education rose altogether from 23% in 1979 to 42% in 1994 (see figure 4). This is an increase of 82.6% in the last 15 years. At least every third citizen between the ages of 19 and 64 took part in continuing education in 1994. The particpation rate rose both in general continuing education and in vocational continuing education (see annex 10), whereby the rate of increase in vocational continuing education was higher than in general continuing education.

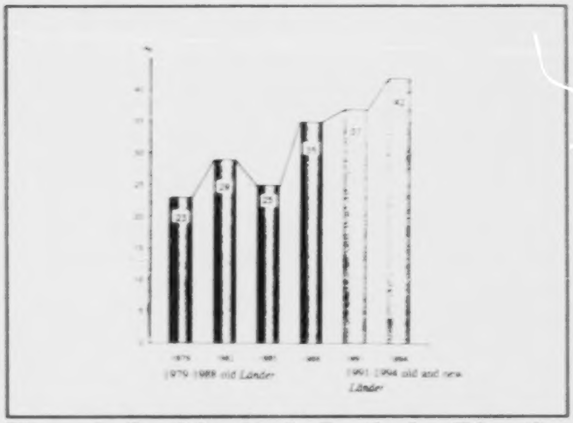


Figure 4 : Participation in Continuing Education (1979-1994)

Source: Kuwan 1996, p. 13

Social factors of participation in continuing education

The above mentioned data are frequently cited as evidence that lifelong learning is already a reality for one third of the population in Germany. However, an analysis of the sociodemographic characteristics of participation in continuing education (age, school and vocational education, employment, professional status and sex) reveals considerable differences in participation between different sectors of the population. They allow the conclusion that educational opportunities in continuing education are even more unevenly distributed than in the school system. Participation in continuing education is significantly higher

- for younger people in comparison with older people
- for people with higher school and vocational educational degrees in comparison with those with lower,
- for the employed compared to the unemployed
- for better qualified in comparison with less qualified
- for men compared to women.

The following data from the year 1994 (cf. Kuwan 1996) show this clearly:

Participation according to age

The participation rate for those under 35 years of age is considerably higher (49%) than for the 50 to 64-year-olds (28%) (see annex 11).

Participation according to educational qualifications

Whilst the participation rate for people with "lower school education" was only 29%, it was 60% for those with the secondary school-leaving certificate (see annex 12).

Participation according to vocational education

Only about 19% of those without vocational training took part in a continuing education course, whereas the participation rate for those who had completed higher education was 64% (see annex 13).

Participation according to employment

Employed people take part in continuing education to a far larger extent than the unemployed (50% compared to 29%) (see annex 14).

Participation according to sex

Although the differences between the sexes are decreasing (see annex 15) men still take part in continuing education more often than women (44% compared to 40%). While women take part in continuing general education more frequently (28% compared to 24%) their participation in continuing vocational education decreases significantly (19% compared to 28%).

Regional differences

There are regional differences in the participation. The rural population for example is undersupplied with educational infrastructure. But the differences between East and West are also significant. The participation in continuing education is higher in the "old L‰nder" than in the "new L‰nder". In the East vocational continuing education is predominant.

Barriers to participation

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Barriers to participation

There are however still considerable barriers to continuing education. This is revealed by participation statistics, surveys in the areas of motivation and qualitative research on participants and courses (cf. Br"del 1995). These extend from the funding of continuing education (high costs), the organization and duration (compatibility with family and job), the lack of transparency of provision and guidance (information deficits) to strong personal factors (fear of failure etc.).

Willingness to take part in continuing education

Continuing education has a positive image in the population. This trend of the last years has continued. 94% of the population/interviewees agreed with the statement: "Everbody should be prepared to educate him/herself constantly" and 89% with the statement "Continuing education is an important aid for coping with daily life." The image in the East is more positive than in the West. While in 1988 45% still stated "I have career opportunities even without continuing education" it was only 36% in 1994. Although these statements reflect social expectations, continuing education has nevertheless taken up an important place in public.

3.2 Changes in the contents, organization and quality of adult education

Changes in contents

The societal change in Germany is, as in other industrial states, characterized by: the change of the world through new technology and media, ecological issues, the internationalization of living conditions, the population development, the effects of migration, the lengthening of life expectancy and the phase of old age, changes in values, the pluralization of lifestyles and social relationships, the trends towards singularization and individualization, the problem of de-solidarity etc..

This social structural change challenges continuing education more than other educational areas to equip the participants for a permanent autonomous re-orientation. This is reflected in the provision of continuing education: from environmental education or the acquisition of foreign languages to health education. The continuing education system reacts fast to new demands which result from the social, political and economic changes. This can be seen for example in the educational provision for older adults. Against the background of demographic changes (see annex 16) a new educational area was established very fast. The greatest demand in general continuing education is currently in the areas of languages and health issues.

Changes in the relationship between general, political and vocational continuing education

The tradition of dividing continuing education into general, political and vocational continuing education results from different legislative bases and (financial) support instruments. It is however increasingly being recognized that these areas which are strictly divided in practice are closely related and should therefore be brought together more. This plea for integration is supported by the changes in the world of labour, which call for new qualifications. In vocational initial and continuing education it is becoming more and more important to impart qualifications which go beyond the individual working place: the so-called "key qualifications". In order to be able to act autonomously in the workplace there is a strong need for responsibility, problem solving and decision skills alongside specialized knowledge. Personal, social and creative competences are becoming more important all the time.

Institutionalization and professionalization

When in the mid 60s a new phase of educational reform began, adult education was also re-assessed and institutionalization and professionalization were driven forward. Legal bases emerged on the level of the federal state and the Länder: laws on distance education, continuing education, paid educational leave etc. were passed. The first chairs of adult education were established at the universities and a diploma study course in educational sciences with the speciality adult education was introduced (1969).

In the following period the degree of professionalization rose. However, compared to the school and higher education system professionalization in continuing education is still low. In 1994 the community adult education centres (Volkshochschulen) had only 3,712 full-time professional educational staff but 180,608 part-time professional educational staff. Regular further training for the professional educational staff is provided above all by the community adult education centres (Volkshochschulen).

Ensuring the quality of continuing education

The issue of the quality of continuing education has been discussed intensively in the last years. Due to the variety of educational provision participants are often not able to get an idea of the quality before they attend a course or a training measure. Because of the increasing market character of continuing education the question of the protection of the participants arises. There are intentions to formulate minimum qualitative standards. Ensuring the quality of the provision can be carried out in various ways. Apart from the institution voluntarily checking itself there are also public forms, e.g. in the form of checklists, stamps of quality or certification according to the international standard ISO 9000ff. These are becoming more and more part of the marketing strategies of the educational providers.

Correspondence courses are required to have state authorization according to the "Federal Correspondence Course Protective Law" (1979). The "Central office for correspondence courses of the Länder of the Federal Republic of Germany" makes the decision on the authorization after reviewing the quality of the instruction materials, the advertising and the contract.

3.3 Recognition and utilization of participation in adult education

It is a charateristic feature of modern societies that the education received has a lasting impact on the individual's opportunities in life. The impact of participation in continuing education on the improvement of the social and professional situation is viewed critically in Germany. It seems be the case that participation in adult education does not have a great influence on status. The distribution of social opportunities through education is mainly linked to initial education.

It is however undisputed that a higher qualification facilitates better social participation and those who are more highly qualified are to a far lesser extent threatened and affected by unemployment (see annex 17). Compared to this the opportunities in working life for those with few or no qualifications are low. Whereas in 1993 only 4.7% of those with a university degree were affected by unemployment, the figure was 18.6% for those without formal qualifications (the unskilled). Labour market predictions indicate that the number of jobs which require higher qualifications will increase in the future. Although at present 20% of jobs are still in the hands of unskilled and semi-skilled workers, it is estimated that this number will have been halved by the year 2010.

Development of a certificate system

In Germany there is no standardized system of certificates (cf. M‚nch 1994). There are a great variety of certificates on different levels and in different areas. Furthermore the certificate "system" is strongly decentralized and educational institutions have a high degree of autonomy when examining and awarding certificates. Some providers, for example, have developed their own certificates. The consequence is that there is a lack of transparency both for participants and employers. Because of this certificates are losing importance; the participants frequently rely on the cumulative value of certificates.

It is generally agreed that reports and certificates make sense in certain areas of continuing education. The prerequisite is that the comparability and recognition of these certificates must be guaranteed, something which has not yet been completely achieved. There is a plea for a comprehensive system which is structured like a module system. Since the 70s, especially since the work of the German Education Council, the development of a module system has been brought into the debate on continuing education. Participants can create their own educational career through the flexible attendance of courses in different institutions which are compatible with one another. This way of organizing learning creates new freedom in terms of time and place.

If certificates are to be relevant to the labour market, the dovetailing of the education system with the employment system is necessary. However, due to the problems of the labour market there is no guarantee that participants will get a job after the completion of continuing education measures and even less that these jobs will be appropiate to their improved level of qualification. Here the continuing education system has to rely on accompanying instruments of labour market policy.

3.4 The growing importance of continuing vocational education

The lasting structural changes in the employment sector due to the development towards a service economy (see annex 18), the advance of new technologies, increased international competition and as a result the rapid changes in the world of labour have led to changes in the vocational qualifications needed. In turn this has led to the growing importance of continuing vocational education.

Since the 60s the contribution of continuing education to societal development has increasingly been stressed. The utilization aspect of education has gained importance and the institutions of continuing education have opened their provision increasingly to enable the acquisition of usable knowledge, this is true in particular for continuing vocational education. This development was later characterized as the "realistic turn-about".

Since the 80s at the latest, continuing vocational education has become more predominant than general and political continuing education. This development has been reinforced by the "qualification offensive" introduced by the federal government in the mid 80s and by the political unification. In the public debate continuing education is increasingly seen as an instrument to adapt employees for the world of labour (new technologies etc.) and to defuse the problems of the mass unemployment.

Company-based education

In the last years vocational continuing education has experienced a quantitative expansion and gained importance politically. The proportion of continuing vocational education carried out in companies is rising and accounts for half of all provision in this area.

Normally only big companies run systematic, qualitatively significant continuing education. Here continuing education is increasingly seen as an important instrument in personnel development. Compared to this connies is less developed. There it has a strong "ad hoc-character" and is orientated towards short term tasks. It is mainly designed to be adaptation education. Within the framework of new production concepts new continuing education methods are also introduced into the company. Terms like "quality circle" and "learning enterprise" point to this.

The continuing education opportunities for employees in the company are not distributed evenly and depend on the size of the company, on age, sex, vocational pre-education and status within the company. So the participation rate is higher for younger employees than for older ones, higher for men than for women and six times as high for managers as for unskilled or semi-skilled workers. This uneven participation allows the conclusion that the structures of social inequality are even reinforced in the companies.

Continuing education is increasingly becoming a field for co-determination. The number of wage agreements in which arrangements for qualification are agreed ("qualification agreements") are rising.

Company-based education is criticized, above all by the trade unions. They criticize the fact that in-company training is directly orientated towards the interests of the company, that participation is highly selective, that it does not improve the situation of employees who are at particular risk and that company-based education is to a large degree beyond public control.

Continuing vocational education as an instrument of labour market policy

As an important labour market policy instrument the "Promotion of Employment Act" was passed in 1969, at a time of strong economic growth and shortage of manpower. Its aims were amongst others, "to improve the employment structure, avoid structural unemployment and promote growth through full employment." The measures which were and are promoted according to the "Promotion of Employment Act" of the Federal Labour Office are in particular vocational further education, vocational retraining and training on-the-job.

The number of people taking part in continuing education measures promoted by the Federal Labour Office, has expanded in the long term (see table 1). Whilst 170,000 people went into continuing education in 1970, the figures reached a peak of nearly 1.5 million in 1992. Around 900,000 of these were people in the "new Länder". This expansion not only reflects the general growing importance of continuing vocational education, but also the increasing problem of mass unemployment. Whilst in 1970 only 11.3% of those sponsored were unemployed, the proportion had reached 92% in 1994.

Table1. Number of peoples going into continuing vocational education (further education, retraining, on-the-job-training) and expenditure of the Federal Labour Office for the promotion of continuing vocational education (1970-1994)

Year	Numbers going into continuing vocational education	Percentage of these who were unemployed	Expenditure (billion DN)
1970	170,000	11.3	0.6
1972	260,000	6.3	1.5
1974	232,000	16.1	1.8
1976	151,000	32.9	1.9
1978	175,000	43.5	1.3
1980	246,000	43.3	2.4
1982	265,000	55.0	3.2
1984	353,000	66.0	3.2
1986	530,000	66.0	4.4
1988	565,000	55.8	5.9
1990	672,000	65.6	6.5
1992	1,462,000	70.0	18.9
1994	593,000	92.0	13.4

Source: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit 1970ff. Quoted from Sauter 1995, p.4

Since the 70s unemployment has increased continuously (see annex 19). Whereas the rate of unemployment was still below 1% in 1970, it had already reached 9.1% in 1991. In 1995 the rate of unemployment was around 10%. More and more people are without a job permanently. Mass unemployment has developed into an individual and social problem.

From a preventive labour market policy towards a curative one

The labour market policy instrument of the "Promotion of Employment Act" has experienced a significant shift in its content in the last twenty years. What was once a preventive labour market policy has developed into a reactive or curative one. While at the beginning in times of full employment an important goal was to promote the individual vocational upgrading of the employed through continuing education (upgrading education), the integration of the unemployed through retraining is now to the fore.

Two cultures

A tendency to split vocational continuing education into two different separate areas is becoming apparent. On the one hand continuing education in companies for the employed which serves career development; on the other hand publicly financed continuing vocational education, which is directed at the unemployed as a curaeducation, which is directed at the unemployed as a curative sociopolitical instrument of integration. In so far one can ask whether lifelong learning is becoming above all a reality for the unemployed or other problem groups of the labour market.

The segmentation of the labour market is reflected in continuing education. Preventive forms for employees threatened by redundancy are missing. It is also necessary to consider how access to company-based education can be made available to the unemployed.

3.5 The emergence of new societal time patterns and the re-evaluation of the notions of work and productivity

Reduction in working hours and increase in free-time

The societal time volume has experienced a change in Germany in the last decades. The negotiated working week has steadily become shorter: in 1950 it was 50 hours, in 1958 45 hours, in 1973 40 and at the end of 1995 the 35-hour-working week was introduced in the most important sector of the Western German economy, the metal and electrical industry. In the economy as a whole the average working week in the West consists of 37,4 hours. The number of days holiday has also risen. The average standard holiday with pay for employees was increased between 1960 and 1992 by 17 days to 29 days (Statisches Bundesamt 1994, p. 139f.). The majority of employees now receive at least six weeks holiday per year.

The reduction of working hours was accompanied by an increasing flexibilization of working time. The "standard employment relationship" has experienced important changes as far as times are concerned. The number of those employed part-time, mainly women, has risen. Shift work and flexible working times have increased.

Despite difficulties in defining leisure-time, it can be said that there has on average been an increase in leisure-time for all, although there are considerable differences. Leisure-time has gained importance, this is also indicating by the catchphrase of the "leisure-time society". On the one hand an increase in "time souveranity" can be observed which opens up new spaces for individual demands, on the other hand the self-determined organization of the non-working time proves to be difficult for many citizens. An influential culture and leisure-industry has been developed which limits the individual's freedom to organize his own time through heteronomy. In the meantime leisure-time has become not only time for continuing education, but also the target of continuing education.

Constitution of new learning and educational times

The length of both the normal working day and the working life have changed significantly. At the same time this development has a new quality. Not only is a linear reduction in working hours taking place new types of time arrangements are emerging, in which the distinction between working-time, education-time and leisure-time is becoming blurred. For some areas this trend towards alternating times - periods of work, education, selfdevelopment, time in the family, leisure-time - can already be observed. This also has an impact on the constitution of times for learning and education. There is still a considerable need for research here. The assumption that with the increase in life expectancy and above all in leisure-time, more time for education will be available, must however in my opinon be considered to be too linear. Time for education emerges not only in leisure-time, rather it is a category between working-time and leisure-time (cf. Nuissl 1994).

There is a tendency for time for continuing education to be shifted from the working-time into the leisure-time. In collective bargaining and especially when agreeing on new models for working hours the trade unions have increasingly endeavoured to open up new periods of time for employees for continuing education.

Changes in the concept of work and productivity

The welfare state Germany is to a high degree centred on gainful employment. Although erosion tendencies are becoming more and more apparent, the model of the working society is still socially relevant. Over 4 million offically unemployed and up to 8 million "underemployed" are a sign of the end of full employment in Germany. With this development the traditional concept of work is losing importance. This leads to social groups demanding a "new" societal notion of work, which will qualify the traditional predominance of paid work through forms of independent and social work and autonomous activities. At the core of this is the recognition of work which is of value to society, e.g. social work, neighbourly help, work in the family, in environmental protection etc.

Especially in the education of the elderly the concept of productivity has been broadened. New productivity concepts are finding their way into educational work (cf. Kade 1994). Here elderly people can experience social usefulness by passing on their experience and their knowledge (foreign languages etc.) to younger people, for example.

3.6 Critical life-events and lifelong "identity learning"

Learning has not only gained importance in the the world of labour under the aspect of qualification; many the everyday human problems are increasingly seen as educational challenges. Rapid social change leads to an increased demand for individual learning processes in order to cope with critical events and to get one's bearings in an environment which is becoming more complex .

Societal and individual crises (e.g. unemployment, illness, divorce etc.) require new personal re-orientation. The significance of identity learning over the whole lifespan is becoming more apparant. This necessity is reflected in continuing education provision and is implicit in the expectations of the participants in many continuing education courses. Adult education serves as an aid in dealing with problems in life. Help in coping with life and new orientations for action are sought through continuing education. The analysis of the biographical situation of participants is increasingly becoming an important didactical requirement.

Learning in "status passages" and over the whole lifespan

Traditional critical life-events are status passages, like starting working life or parenthood, which lead to an increased demand for learning processes and learning assistance. This is above all true for the two critical status passages related to the world of labour, the transition from vocational education into working life and from working life into retirement. However, critical life-events are no longer limited to these two traditional status passages of the "working society". In the "risk society" the crises are spread over the whole lifespan.

The phase of beginning working life is increasingly characterized by unemployment and uncertainty. Even with a high qualification profile (e.g. academics) the beginning of a careeer is not without problems. Increasingly during the first years a specific professional profile is developed, which is characterized by a series of different short, uncertain working relationships and accompanied by further qualification. The working biography is increasingly becoming a patchwork biography. In addition the end of a job or the end of work in the family are experienced as drastic changes. The number of those in employment who retire already before they are 60 years old has increased steadily in Germany.

The transformation process in Eastern Germany

The need for "strategies for coping in crises" increases especially when the different social and personal problems add up. This can be observed currently after the unification in Eastern Germany. The rapid social transformation since 1989 has had far-reaching economic and social consequences for the 17 million Eastern Germans: partial de-industrialization, as a consequence mass unemployment which was completely unknown before, social deterioration of large groups of the population, above all women. Here a bundle of problems add up to critical deterioritation: rapid changes in the social system and living conditions, devaluation of previous professional qualifications, mass unemployment and the disappearance of some jobs. These unforeseen changes require enormous individual learning efforts in the areas of adaptation, orientation and identity.

3.7 Structural problems of the continuing education system: between market and public responsibility

The structure of the system of continuing education in Germany means that it is only possible to speak of a "system" to a certain extent. Continuing education is regulated by the state far less than the other sectors of the education system. The expansion of continuing education as the fourth pillar of the education system with appropiate support which was demanded in the 70s has not been realized.

Plurality, subsidiarity and competition

Central charactistics of the structure of the system are those of plurality and subsidiarity. In contrast to the areas of school and higher education continuing education is organized according to the principle of subsidiarity which is also the basis of social policy in Germany. This means, that first of all social (private, non-governmental) groups look after public tasks and the public authorities (federal state, L%ander, local authorities) are obliged to support their work.

The significance of the structural principles of plurality and subsidiarity are hardly ever disputed. Due to them continuing education can react flexibly to new demands and the variety of participants' interests can be taken into account. But the degree of public responsibility is disputed. One of the tasks of the state in continuing education is to guarantee basic public provision. This is above all derived from the precept of the welfare state. This includes, for example, guaranteeing adequate continuing education provision which cannot be guaranteed without public support, guaranteeing access to continuing education for special target groups and guaranteeing basic conditions for the continuing education system.

The relationship between public responsibility and market character is a subject of intense discussion. There is a fear, that the welfare state model (public responsibility) could be replaced by a (free enterprise) model with market principles. The continuing education system would then be seen above all as a functioning continuing education market. A dismantling of public responsibility can currently be noted in the whole education system. The tendency to withdraw tasks and responsibility from the state in favour of privatization and market orientation is especially obvious in continuing education. Through market tendencies a commercialization of continuing education on the market is taking place.

Cooperation between the providers of continuing education

Cooperation and coordination have now become the central issues in the debate on continuing education. The cooperation between providers of continuing education is seen as an important means for solving the structural problems of continuing education.

A cooperative system of continuing education, as demanded at the end of the 60s, could however never be realized. Against the background of the growing importance of continuing education - but also because of cuts in public financing - the issue of cooperation gained new importance at the beginning of the 90s. In educational policy documents and in Länder laws on continuing education the networking of continuing education provision and cooperation between the providers in continuing education is increasingly called for. Through increased cooperation (e.g. in the areas of advertising, further training, advice etc.) the existing resources could be used more effectively, the quality improved and the separation according to content and organization overcome.

In the last years new organizational forms of cooperation have emerged, above all on a regional level, where the relevant institutions of continuing education, authorities, universities etc. have joined together. These voluntary forms of cooperation however come up against the limiting factors of some providers' own interests. Cooperation does not normally happen systematically and continuously, but selectivly and sporadically.

3.8 Changes in the funding of continuing education

The funding of continuing education is very varied. The overall picture of the amount and structure of funding of continuing education in Germany is incomplete. Four main sources of funding can be stated: public financing (federal state, Länder and local authorities), the Federal Labour Office, private industry and the participants of continuing education.

The public funding of continuing education comprises i.a: the support of Länder and local authorities for continuing education institution and the support of individuals wishing to acquire school qualifications.

Continuing education within the framework of the labour market policy especially for the unemployed is funded according to the Promotion of Employment Act by the Federal Labour Office from unemployment insurance funds. In 1992 a total of DM 17 billion was spent on vocational further education, retraining and vocational re-integration.

The amount which is spent by the companies on the company-based training of their employees is considerable. According to a survey around DM 17 billion were spent in 1993. The biggest cost factor are the wage costs during training (around 48%). Calculations in this area do however vary. According to German industry companies spend between DM 20 and 40 billion on in-company training.

The participants themselves bear considerable portion of the costs of continuing education. As a result of the cuts in public subsidies the amount which participants have to pay is rising. Cost of continuing education are increasingly transferred to them. Up to half of the costs of the community adult education centres (Volkshochschulen) are already covered by the fees paid by participants. In vocational continuing education, in particular in training measures for career development, the participants bear most of the costs themselves.

Overall funding volume

According to different estimates a total of between DM 50 and 70 billion is spent in Germany on continuing education. This expenditure on continuing education from the different sources is more than the state spends on the whole public education system. This sum reflects the quantitative significance as well as the qualitative shift of this educational sector. Only a small portion of continuing education funding is revealed in the public education budget: continuing education is increasingly taking place outside the education system and withdrawing from public control.

3.9 Incentives for participation in continuing education

In Germany there are various incentives for participation in continuing education. In the following the statutory incentive of paid educational leave and the financial incentive for retraining will be mentioned.

Paid Educational Leave

In 11 of the 16 Länder so called "laws on release" were passed. They entitle employees to take part in continuing education for 5 working days a year as a rule (or in some Länder for ten days in two years). The employer is obliged to continue paying the wages or salary. In many Länder only courses in political or continuing vocational education are recognized; in some (Schleswig-Holstein) courses in general continuing education are also possible.

The participation rate is however relatively low. Only between 1 and 3 percent of the approx. 32 million people employed in Germany take advantage of paid educational leave. The reasons for this are varied. Employees' fears in times of economic crisis that it could be disadvantageous for their career are not to be underestimated. Ever since the introduction of these laws employers have opposed paid educational leave and gone often to court. Even the Federal Constitutional Court dealt with paid educational leave in 1987. In the court's decision the legal obligation of employers to release employees for the purpose of paid educational leave, also for general and political education, was stated:

"It is therefore in the public interest - not only to increase workers' functional skills and knowledge requisite for the exercise of their jobs, but also to enhance the understanding for societal, social and political issues and their interrelationships in order to promote active participation." (quoted from Schütze 1994, p. 4259)

In spite of the quantitatively low participation, paid educational leave represents a qualitatively important access opportunitity to continuing education. It has an important initializing function, in that for many employees it signifies their first contact with continuing education after initial education at school.

Retraining

The main incentive for retraining is to find a job after a continuing education measure. However, due to the problematic situation on the labour market this motivation factor is losing importance. Additionally the Promotion of Employment Act provided a material incentive for retraining for the unemployed: the vocational training allowance was higher than the unemployment allowance (at the beginning of the 70s: 95% compared to 68% of the former net income). However, due to more restrictive implementation within the framework of the Promotion of Employment Act the financial incentive has decreased continuously, and the vocational training allowance is now exactly the same as the unemployment allowance. And the former legal entitlement to reimbursement of expenditure on vocational further education has been changed into a discretionary provision.

3.10 Bridging mechanism between formal and non-formal education

In Germany bridging functions between formal and non-formal education are mainly limited to opportunities for later acquiring qualifications not gained at school.

Alongside the formal "first educational track" opportunities have developed for people to study for and re-take school-leaving examiniations which they did not gain the first time round ("second educational track") and/or take up higher education ("third educational track"). In the reform period great (educational and social) political importance was attached to the opportunities for working people now offered by the "second educational track".

The "second track" offers young and working people the opportunity to obtain qualifications on both levels of the secondary education. There is no standardized organization in the Länder, but a wide range of different institutions with a great variety of continuing education. In some Ländern courses of the "Second Educational Track" can be attended both in institutions of the school system (e.g. night schools) and in institutions of continuing education (community adult education centres.)

Apart from this track which is mainly governed by school legislation there is also a track governed by higher education legislation ("Third Educational Track"). In 14 Ländern qualified working persons are given the opportunity to study at university even without the general university entrance qualification. The requirements vary according to the Land. They include vocational qualifications, job experience, study on a trial basis, advise sessions and examinations. The quantitative significance of this "Third Educational Track" may still be very low, but it represents important progress in the direction of the equal recognition of vocational and general education.

4. The growing importance and increasing plurality of learning environments

4.1 Cultural practices and access to cultural institutions

Reading and libraries

It is often feared that people read less due to the increase of electronic media. Surveys of reading habits (see annex 20) however, show that 21% of the total population read a book several times per week. Women read more frequently than men, younger more often than older people, the better-educated more often than the less well-educated. The fact, that books are not losing importance despite the increase of electronic media is also shown by the upward trend in the publication of new titles. In 1991 67,900 titles were published. Reading newspapers and magazines constitutes a significant amount of reading time.

Several institutions, like the "Reading Foundation", are dedicated to encouraging reading and book culture. Interests and pleasure in reading are promoted by different types of provision in cooperation with other institutions of the education system (kindergarten, school and out-of-school education for youths, adult education). These extend from advertising campaigns e.g. posters in railway stations with the slogan "traveling time is reading time", or recommendations for reading to the 300 reading clubs for German and foreign teenagers from socially disadvantaged families, in which the organization of leisure-time and reading are linked to each another.

Access to books is facilitated by public libraries. In 1992 there were 14,020 public libraries. Nearly 9 million library users borrowed around 296 million books. 10-20% of the adult population and 50% of children and teenagers use libraries. Apart from this, there are 1,382 scientific libraries with 2.5 million users and also school libraries, the range and quality of these however is unsatisfactory. Despite record numbers of books borrowed libraries are being closed or having their services cut back. This is above all true for branches and book buses. Providing a public library service is especially difficult in towns with a population of below 20,000. In the new L%cnder the number of libraries has decreased considerably.

Public libraries see themselves not only as places of reading, but also as cultural meeting places. Libraries are increasingly seen as culture and communication centres and more attention is paid to adequate architecture in new buildings. Libraries are faced with the challenge of developing new forms of presentation and events. An extended range of media (videos, CD-rom, online databases) can increasingly be found in libraries.

Theatres and museums

Museums and theatres are traditionally important institutions of cultural life. The 3,615 museums in Germany had a total of around 93 million visitors in 1992. The public theatres have lost around 5 million visitors since the mid sixities. In 1991/92 there were 19.7 million theatre-goers. The GDR had a very dense network of theatres but this cultural infrastructure was cut back significantly after the unification.

Culture and leisure time

Sports clubs play an important role in Germany. In 1992 around 21 million members were organized in 79,000 clubs. Children and teenagers make up a high proportion. Attendance at sporting events has increased further.

Apart from sports making music also takes up a part of leisure time. The 1,006 music schools which are mainly maintained by local authorities had around 840,000 pupils in 1993. Around 1.8 million people were members of the 20,513 choirs in 1994.

Socio-cultural institutions

In the last two decades the notion of culture has been boradened to include daily life and the "lifeworld". In Germany the concept of "socio-culture" is programmatic for this development. This concept demands a stronger cooperation between education and culture soemthing which has only partly been realized in the practice. Schools and universities should become more of a cultural focal point. New sociocultural centres were established in order to faciliate access to culture.

4.2 Pluralization of learning places and "lifewide learning"

Extension and pluralization of learning spaces and places

An extension of the spaces in which learning and education takes place can be observed. Traditional institutions are being supplemented by new learning places. Institutions which are not genuine educational institutions makes provisions for learning, e.g. the provision of health education by the health insurance companies. Once can find provision for and implicit invitations to learning in all areas of the lifeworld: from talkshows and crime stories on TV, which deal for example with the subject of right wing extremism, to holidays which strive for a more intensive experience of nature, to the wine merchant around the corner, who offers wine courses. Apart from this adults also learn short-term and permanently in contexts of self-organization and self-help.

Critics therefore demand a revision of the pre-dominating institutional fixation. This process of the de-institutionalization of continuing education sectors is not only seen viewed positively however. The accompanying danger of increased functionalization of education for social problems is also seen. Many of these educational approaches are functionalistic and are favoured for strong economic reasons; whether in questions of health prophylaxis or maintaining the independence of the elderly people as a national economic resource.

The widening of the concept of learning

With the pluralization of places of learning it is becoming more difficult to grasp the concept of learning. Apart from organized forms of learning in institutions of continuing education increasing attention is paid to adults' informal forms of learning forms in their different areas of life (workplace, family, leisure time etc.). Terms like "non-institutionalized learning, "informal learning", "learning 'en passant', "Ad hoc-learning", "latent learning", "natural learning", "self-directed learning" etc. point to this.

More recent surveys on informal continuing vocational education (cf. Kuwan 1996, p. 50ff.) verify the importance of these forms of acquiring knowledge. The participation rate in informal continuing vocational education is twice as high as in formal courses. In 1994, for example, one in three working people (33%) said that they had read job-related books or journals, around one in four (23%) had taught themselves something by observing and then trying it out at work or in the their freetime and around one in ten (11%) named self-directed learning at work or in their leisure time with the help of media.

The growing importance of the learning environments

There are many signs for the thesis that a progressive "pedagogization" of all societal areas over and above the actual education system is taking place ("pedagogization of the lifeworld"). Education is penetrating into all areas and is no longer only limited to traditional educational institutions. Learning possibilities are being extended.

However, the question of the educational political responsibility, e.g. how informal educational processes can be linked with formal, how self-directed achievements can be recognized by society etc., is as yet unsolved. Important questions are also raised for the practice of continuing education, e.g. how the transition between organized and self-directed learning can be achieved, how access to learning opportunities can be improved etc..

In the last decades new forms of lifelong learning have emerged. Although these learning forms do not seem so new at first glance, such as self-directed learning for example, they have however - not least because of the new technological possibilities - been accentuated and

focussed, and this is new.

4.3 Media and education

The increasing use of media

The media play a growing role in daily life. The use of media has risen steadily in the last years. Surveys indicate that the adult citizen spends on average more than 3 1/2 hours daily using the media of television, radio and newspapers. The television claims 2 hours of this time and experts expect a further increase in the amount of time spent watching TV. Young people use the new media to a far larger extent than the total population (see annex 21).

Educational provision by the media

Since the sixties attempts have been made to use the media radio and television for educational programmes. The task of educating is stipulated in the broadcasting legislation of the broadcasting services, especially the public ones. They are expected to contribute to information, education and culture through their programmes. School broadcasting and school television programmes, language programmes, etc. have emerged. In 1966 the "college of the air" (Funkkolleg) was founded. This self-study educational programme was designed as a multi-media system with radio and later also television programmes, study materials and study circles in other educational institutions. The extent of this multi-media system remained limited however.

The expectation raised in the 60s, that televison and radio would develop into an important institutional factor in the education system has not been fulfilled. Only the smallest proportion of the viewers use television for "intentional learning". Attention is now directed more towards supplementing formal learning.

The debate on the relationship between education and media is changing against the background of the rapidly changing media landscape. Multimedia and interactive television are the new buzz words which influence the discussion.

New media and self-learning

The density of computers in Germany is the European average: 12 out of 100 inhabitants have a home-PC (as of 1994), i.e. one in eight citizens. Most owners use the computer for work (59%) and only then as fun-machine (games 34%). 31% use the computer for continuing education.

Here too there are differences according to age and sex: younger people use computers more frequently than older people and men more than women. In 1995 one in two boys between the ages of 6 and 13 had access to a PC at home (compared to one in four girls) and one in five boys had his own PC (compared to one in twelve girls).

Schools and libraries online

There is a lack of computers in schools. In 1994 there was only one 1 computer for 64 pupils. Increasingly sponsors, such as publisher of school books and media groups initiate pilot projects. 300 schools in Germany are now connected via data line to the "Open Geman School Net". In the pilot project "Comenius" in Berlin several schools are linked via optical fibre cables to form a "virtual community house". In some pilot projects the Internet is also used in class. In the project "Aurich meets Bronx", for example, pupils communicate in their English lessons with their counterparts in New York. A growing number of people are already calling for an "Internet licence" for pupils. In spite of these pilot projects the screen has not yet replaced the book in the classroom.

Experience shows that traditional cultural institutions (e.g. libraries) can also reach sections of the population who do not normally take part in education through new media . There is a call for the public libraries to provide everyone with the access to databases and Internet free of charge.

Significant impulses come from initiatives at the European level. The European Union promotes the setting up of telematic centres and of a European educational television channel.

Individualization of educational careers

The possibilities to put together individual learning programmes using the wide range of new media are rising. They can supplement and enrich the autonomous use of cultural institutions (theater, museum) and of continuing education. But this individualization of educational careers is often limited by the previous school education and the financial possibilities. The different media also compete for individual's time.

4.4 Information and advice for adults

If continuing education is seen as part of the education system, then advice and information are increasingly becoming an important element of structure in order to get one's bearings in the ever-growing "market of opportunities". Autonomous participation in education often requires not only information but also individual guidance on learning. There is still a lack of transparency and systematic information. In 1992 42% of the 19 to 64-years old wished to have more information and advice (Kuwan 1996, 63ff.). This was above all true for workers and younger interviewees.

Since the 80s information systems and databases of continuing education, which give orientation in the various areas of continuing education, were established in public or joint responsibility. In larger local authorities local continuing education advice services were set taking part and provide information but also to advertise. In 1994 around one in seven citizens asked for advice on opportunities for continuing education (Kuwan 1996, p. 64).

5. Transition towards Lifelong Learning

5.1 Transformation of the formal education system towards lifelong learning

Since the 60s a tremendous expansion of the education system has taken place in Germany. Characteristic here were the provision of education for ever broader groups of the population and the development towards increasingly formal higher educational degrees.

Two lines of argumentation came together here: education was assigned a key function both in the necessary development of "talent reserves" for an industrial society and to guarantee the constitutional right to equal opportunities. In the 60s the catch word of the "education disaster" (Picht) appeared . There was a fear against the background of the "Sputnik-shock" that shortcomings in the educational standard of the total population would hinder the further economic development. At the same time "education as a civil right" (Dahrendorf) and as a contribution to equal opportunities was demanded. And so education policy attained a key function compared with the other areas of politics.

Facilitating access to education for ever larger sectors of the population corresponded not only to the societal and economic need, but also to the wishes of the persons involved and the precept of equal opportunities. The demand for education which began as a consequence gathered momentum and, to a large degree, escaped attempts at political regulation.

As early as the end of the 70s, against the background of the first signs of economic crisis, the public promotion and the extension of the education system started to stagnate and hindered further structural development. In the 80s the public responsibility for and support of the education system was gradually dismantled, i.a. supported by the conservative-liberal government. Market and privatization tendencies were becoming more apparent. In the 90s the education system is influenced by cuts in public spending as a result of the economic crisis (as a consequence of the convergence criteria, the unification process, the recession, globalization etc.). The lack of educational reform is becoming more evident.

In the last twenty to thirty years the education system has been expanded and differentiated, which can also be interpretated as a reaction to the increasing necessity for lifelong learning processes. The following central tendencies were and are characteristic for the different educational sectors:

School and Higher Education

* Expansion of the formal education system
* Access for broader sectors of the population
* Steady development towards educational qualifications which are formally superior
* Continuous increase in the amount of time spent in education
* Differentiation of the institutions of school and higher education
* Increasing internal differentiation of educational institutions; individualization of the teaching and learning process
* Modernization of the educational contents
* Continuous process of decentralization within the education system The pedagogically and politically founded tendencies of decentralizaton will continue.
* Introduction of criteria of effectiveness and trends towards rationalization
* Shift of the educational debate in the last two decades from quantitative structural development towards a qualitative development of the education system
* ...

Adult Education/Continuing Education

* Expansion of the societal continuing education volume. The increasingly important role which continuing education has against the background of far-reaching social changes, resulted in a considerable increase in participation and financial expenditure in the last two decades.
* Continuing education as a growing sector of the education system. Although the organizational extension of continuing education as the "fourth pillar" of the education system demanded in the 70s could not be realized, continuing education has nevertheless developed as a sector of the education system which is, along with school, vocational and higher education, increasingly gaining importance. Learning as an adult over the whole lifespan has become completly natural for more and more people. The motives for this are as varied as the areas of life. Rapid social change, which effects all areas of life, means that the lifelong learning processes will be increasingly important in the future.
* Emergence of market tendencies
* Growing importance of continuing education
* Continuing education is becoming part of all societal policy sectors (above all as an instrument of

labour market policy and social policy)
- ...

Learning environments
- General expansion and increasing pluralization of learning opportunities and environments
- New learning places are emerging outside the traditional educational institutions
- New media and forms of self-directed learning are gaining importance
- Development of a societal learning climate which sees lifelong learning processes as socially desirable
- ...

Limits and deficits of lifelong learning

In the last thirty years the total educational volume in Germany has risen steadily. This applies to both the formal and non-formal educational processes. Despite thrusts of modernization and the enormous expansion of the education system there are structural deficits and problems which are an obstacle to the further extension of a "lifelong learning system". In the following the problem of equal opportunities will be raised by way of an example.

The individual opportunities for education and learning are still socially influenced. In this respect the efforts of the educational reform of the last decades have not been able to change anything fundamentally. Unevenly distributed access to educational institutions, above all handicaps related to sex and age, still exists. Continuing education in particular is only in a very limited way suitable as a corrective measure in order to offset forms of initital education and career decisisions which have already been made. Continuing education can in fact contribute to a reinforcement of inequality of opportunitites.

With the increased market orientation and individualization the question of social inequality and the processes of segmentation also has to be raised and to be answered anew. If lifelong learning is to benefit the whole population, an increased dedication to those target groups which have been neglected up to now (shift workers, members of ethnic minorities, the rural population etc.), is necessary. In view of the signs of crisis in the welfare state there are doubts as to whether this can be realized in the near future through increased support from the state.

New educational reform?

A historical examination demonstrates that societal transformation processes can lead to new impulses for education policy. It can be observed in Germany that when postulates to adapt to the technological and social changes coincide with democratization postulates the educational areas were upgraded, which was also reflected in the financial ressources (cf. Faulstich et al 1992, p. 10).

At present, however, the education policy has lost importance compared with other policy sectors. In spite of the emphasis on education as an investment in the future, the public debate about the education system is restrained. It often concentrates on dealing with symptoms of the educational crisis, instead of being orientated towards the causes. Experts and educational policy-makers agree that carrying out "repair measures" and continuing with traditional structures is not sufficient in order to take into account the societal changes. The ability of the traditional education system to reform is limited. A fundamental re-orientation of the whole education system is required. As yet it is not possible to judge what role the concept of lifelong learning can play in this process.

5.2 The concept of lifelong learning in the official policies and in the public debate

The concept of lifelong learning hardly ever appears explicitly in laws for example. Special lifelong learning agencies or mechanisms have not yet been established. In Germany general orientation towards lifelong learning can be found above all implicitly in reports, plans and recommendations. In the following the central document of the educational reform from the 70s and two more recent documents from the 90s, which are geared towards lifelong learning processes will be presented.

"Structural plan for the education system" of the German Education Council (1970)

When in the mid 60s a new educational reform phase started the aim was to reorganize the education system completely. The "structural plan for the education system" of the German Education Council from 1970 forms the concept for the reform of the whole education system. The structural plan followed i.a. the structural principles of expansion, differentiation and integration. Key terms were "equal opportunities", "unity" and the principle of "learning to learn", i.e. "the ability to keep on learning". School was to "establish a process of lifelong learning" (Strukturplan, p. 34).

The structural plan contained numerous educational ideas, which could not all be realized, but dominated the educational debate in the following 20 years, such as promoting pre-school education; lowering the school entrance age, extending compulsory education to 10 years, expanding the provision of higher educational careers etc.

Adult education too which here for the first time was programmatically termed continuing education was reassessed and received important impulses within this framework. Continuing education was defined as

> "any organized learning process which is continued or resumed following the completion of initial education of various duration" (Strukturplan, p. 197)

Continuing education was projected in the perspective of lifelong learning as a distinctive fourth sector of tive of lifelong learning as a distinctive fourth sector of the public education system (alongside the primary, secondary and tertiary sector). It was hoped that continuing education would become an integrated and indispensable part of the education system with the appropiate public funding and legislative basis. This position which was predominant in the 70s could not however be sustained in the following period when increasing problems in the funding of the welfare state arose. There was a growing body of opinion which opposed the idea that continuing education could be planned, organized and financed to the same extent as the other areas of education system. Instead the market idea was increasingly extended to the area of continuing education, especially after the conservative-liberal government came into office (in 1982). Supply and demand were to regulate themselves to a large extent.

Third Recommendation of the Conference of Education Ministers on Continuing Education (1994)

At the end of 1994 the Education Ministers of the German Länder adopted their "Third Recommendation of the Conference of Education Ministers on Continuing Education". In doing so they reacted to the growing importance of lifelong learning and continuing education against the background of rapid social change. It declared:

> "Lifelong learning is today indispensable in order to be able to keep abreast with and be involved in the social and economic changes."
>
> Continuing education is seen as part of the education system and a lifelong learning process (cf. chapter 1.4.):
>
> "Continuing education is based on the knowledge and abilities acquired in school, vocational and the higher education and on experiences gained in life and at work. Therefore school, vocational initial education and intitial higher education on the one hand and continuing education on the other hand are closely related as far as the content and method are concerned.
>
> As in other educational areas the development of the personality is to the fore in continuing education as lifelong learning."

The following are listed (§ 4) as "instruments to achieve the educational aims": greater professionalization; improved protection of the participants and the guarantee of quality; extending the certificate system; improving information and guidance on continuing education and encouraging cooperation.

Only it seems that educational political consequences have not yet been drawn from this. The recommendation ends with the invitation to cooperation:

"The industrial associations, groups of society and institutions of higher education are invited to work together as partners to translate this recommendation into action."

Future of education - school of the future (1995)

The memorandum "The future of education - school of the future" is the result of a commission for an extensive educational reform set up by the leader of the Land North Rhine-Westphalia. After the structural plan for education of the Education Council (1970) this is a new fundamental blueprint for the future structuring of the education system. The memorandum is seen as the "beginning of an open social dialogue about the future of education and the school of the future "(p. XXIX).

A chapter is dedicated solely to lifelong learning. Education is viewed as a lifelong process of learning and developing. Even more so than in the past the task of the school is considered to be to impart the willingness to and competences for lifelong learning. Learning is becoming both the destination and the way. Some consequences for the education system are derived from the necessity for lifelong learning. For example, there is a call for flexible structuring of educational careers (module system).

New guiding principles and recommendations are developed under the image of the school as a "house of learning". School is viewed as a "place of learning and living". The "house of learning" is dynamic and capable of learning and will develop into a "learning organization".

European year of lifelong learning

The "European year of lifelong learning" proclaimed by the European Union for the year 1996 has given new impulses above all to those responsible for educational policy. Lifelong learning was put onto the agenda of education policy. A thrust towards lifelong learning is being made at present by the Federal education ministry. At the end of 1995 a congress on the subject "Lifelong learning - but how?" (cf. Nacke 1996) was organized. The Federal education ministry also ordered a report in which the innovative approaches towards lifelong learning which exist in Germany and in other countries are to be examined and then used to derive guidelines for a modern educational policy (cf. Dohmen 1996).

5.3 Changing relationship between education policy and other policy areas

The changing relationship between education policy and other parts of society can be seen most distinctively in continuing education. Continuing education is assigned more and more tasks in all areas of society. Continuing education is not only part of educational policy, but is increasingly also becoming an integrated part of economic policy, policy on technology and especially labour market policy and social policy. The significance of continuing education as an instrument for labour market and social policy can be observed above all in Eastern Germany.

In the debate it is not the growing importance of continuing education for other social areas which is criticized, but the fact that sectors of continuing education are subject to a lasting shifting. There is a tendency to functionalize and instrumentalize continuing education through different economic and political interests.

The "pedagogization of social problems" is also criticized. Societal crises are defined as learning problems and so individualized. Initial and continuing education are assigned a "fire-fighting function". This can be seen for example in the increase in racist acts in Germany. Instead of finding workable political solutions in matters of immigration policy (e.g. integration of immigrants regarding the law and labour market policy) increased intercultural and political education is immediately called for.

Education is seen as "panacea" for societal crisis. By calling on continuing education in this way not only are societal problems shifted onto the individual, but also solutions and promises are offered which can not be kept and which place too great a burden on education. This can be observed for example in Eastern Germany. Here, continuing education is often claimed to be a "panacea" against unemployment. The people who take part in educational measures have this expectation and do not see that the measures are "holding patterns", prescribed by the state. A long term consequence could be disappointment and as a result greater educational abstinence.

5.4 The lack of an effective promotion policy on lifelong learning and synergy

An odd contradiction between public rhetoric and the actual support for lifelong learning can be observed. All educational forces constantly stress the importance of and the necessity for lifelong learning processes, both for the development of the individual's personality and also for a democratic, competetive and prospering community. But on the other hand no overall educational concept for the promotion of lifelong learning is developed. There are different reasons for this.

Lack of funding

Although in the public debate education is stressed as being an important investment in the future, actual financial support for it is limited. Even though the data is confused, one can assume that the investment in education (approx. 5% of the gross national product) has even decreased in the last years (see annex 22).

In view of the financial problems (meagre public budgets etc.) laws on lifelong learning which stipulate payments like those in the "fat 70s" for example, can no longer be expected towards the end of the 90s. In the debate about financial priorities the education system, and here in particular adult education as the traditional Cinderella, has a hard time.

Lack of coordination and synergy

The education system in Germany is the responsibility of the *Länder*. The constitutional option of a federal state gives the 16 *Länder* the sovereignity in educational issues (Kulturhoheit) to a large extent. An separate education ministry with restricted competences on the federal level was only established in 1969. Due to the federal structure the responsibilites for the different sectors of the education system fall into different levels. This is an obstacle to a centralisitic or strictly controlled implementation of the concept or even to establishing a "system of lifelong learning" from the top.

However the cooperation and coordination between the *Länder* and the different departments in educational matters is becoming more urgent, not only against the background of the increasing europeanization. The previous attempts at cooperation and coordination, such as the joint planning bodies (e.g. the Federal-Länder Commission for Educational Planning) have reached their limits.

It must be considered in how far a concentration of the resources could be achieved through increased cooperation and coordination and if synergy effects could be gained through increased coordination of the different educational sectors. The development of an overall educational political concept seems more necessary than ever.

However, there is not only a need for coordination on the part of the state, but also on the part of the educational institutions with their different protagonists. There is an increasingly need for them to join together to form an "alliance for lifelong learning". The groups committed to education should put "education" back on the daily agenda, so that it is taken out of the niche where it is not noticed.

Regionalization of learning societies

In my opinion, it cannot be expected that the education policy will initiate a "lifelong learning system". It will only give impulses and take accompanying measures (public relations etc.). It is more likely that the regions will be of growing importance in the development of a learning society. Regional school and continuing education landscapes will emerge. Within this framework increased coordination and networking of different educational areas and institutions is possible. However, the other side of the coin is competition. The increasing market tendencies do not foster cooperation in all areas.

Lifelong learning as a social norm

Permanent continuing education is increasingly becoming a social norm. At the beginning of the 70s one could read in the literature on adult education in Germany:

"Further learning is not part of the role of the adult ...., the learning adult has to expect negative sanctions at work and in the family" (Siebert 1972, p. 122)

Twenty-five years later this can hardly be claimed. Learning and continuing education have developed in Germany to a category which is seen positively and they are socially expected. The willingness to take part in continuing education is becoming a significant criteria when employing people. If the unemployed do not participate in continuing education they can even be sanctioned legally.

Although continuing education experiences a growing importance due to this positive image the tendency to declare continuing education to be a desirable social norm is problematic. Because if sufficient learning possibilities are not established and access to them is not facilitated, the potential participants are thrown back upon their alleged "self-imposed infancy" (Kant). If this happens the individualization of societal problems, which can already be observed in the issue of unemployment, will also penetrate fully into the area of continuing education. With its growing societal importance continuing education also receives a new responsibility.

Resistance to lifelong schooling

Reducing continuing education to its economic aspect, to forms of adaptation can also lead to resistance to forms of lifelong schooling.

5.5 Internationalization processes and their impact on national lifelong learning patterns and policies

International integration processes have an impact on the living and working conditions of the population. This is not a new development, but since the mid 90s the debate about the "globalization" of the economy and the mechanism of competition which results from it has been raised with new emphasis.

"Manufacturing base Germany"

The public debate about the economic future of Germany is characterized by the term "economic/manufacturing base Germany". The importance of the employees' qualifications along with wage costs are stressed as an important factor in guaranteeing the future of the German economy. This is said to be the only way in which the international success of the German economy can be guaranteed on the world market, which is characterized by the division of labour.

From an economic and political point of view the rise in the level of education of the population is seen above all as an increase in the level of qualification which is necessary to guarantee the "manufacturing base Germany". This is linked to increasing demands on the education system. This strong educational economic argumentation - as it is also reflected in the White Papers of the European Union - is gaining new importance in the 90s. The human-capital approaches are experiencing a new boom. Critics, however, point out that not only qualified employees are needed, but also educated citizens.

This argumentation pattern "growing importance of qualifications as a guarantee for the competitiveness of the economy on the world markets" is not only specificly German. This economic orientation is predominant in the documents of the European Union too.

European educational cooperation and imparting "European competence"

International integration take place not only in the area of economics, but also in that of culture. The international exchange of experience in the area of education is increasing: Germany participates in the educational programmes of the European Union; within the framework of the European structural policy the European Union puts considerable financial ressources in the area of labour market policy at Germany's disposal etc.

As a consequence of the europeanization it is seen to be necessary to gear the education system towards Europe and to impart "Europe-competence". Not least because the market for the work force is increasingly becoming a European one. Here a lot has to be done to catch up, universtity courses for example are far from being geared towards Europe. The need for foreign languages is also increasesing. The recommendation of the European Union in the White Paper "Teaching and learning" is that every citizen in Europe should speak at least two European languages besides his or her mother tongue.

An internationalization and europeanization of individual educational careers is taking place. More and more pupils and students spend part of their time in education abroad. The European Union is aiming for 10% of students studying for a period of time abroad. In Germany however the proportion is still half of this.

School and continuing education are increasingly gaining an international dimension. Understanding the language and culture of other nations, knowledge about political and economic developments in other states and about supranational and international organizations etc. will become new tasks for education.

Politicians emphasize that the increased mobility associated with the freedom of movement of capital are positive new opportunities. In spite of this potential increase in freedom it must be stated that a small educational "elite" will benefit most from this mobility, they can also be called the "winners in the modernization process".

Innovation through learning communites among the cultures

The much quoted term of the learning society ought

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ture "much in the world society will depend on learning communities amongst the cultures being increasingly developed and that this leads to a growth in the innovation potential. (...). The industrial societies of the West, which traditionally saw themselves as teaching societies must become learning societies" (Lepenies 1995).

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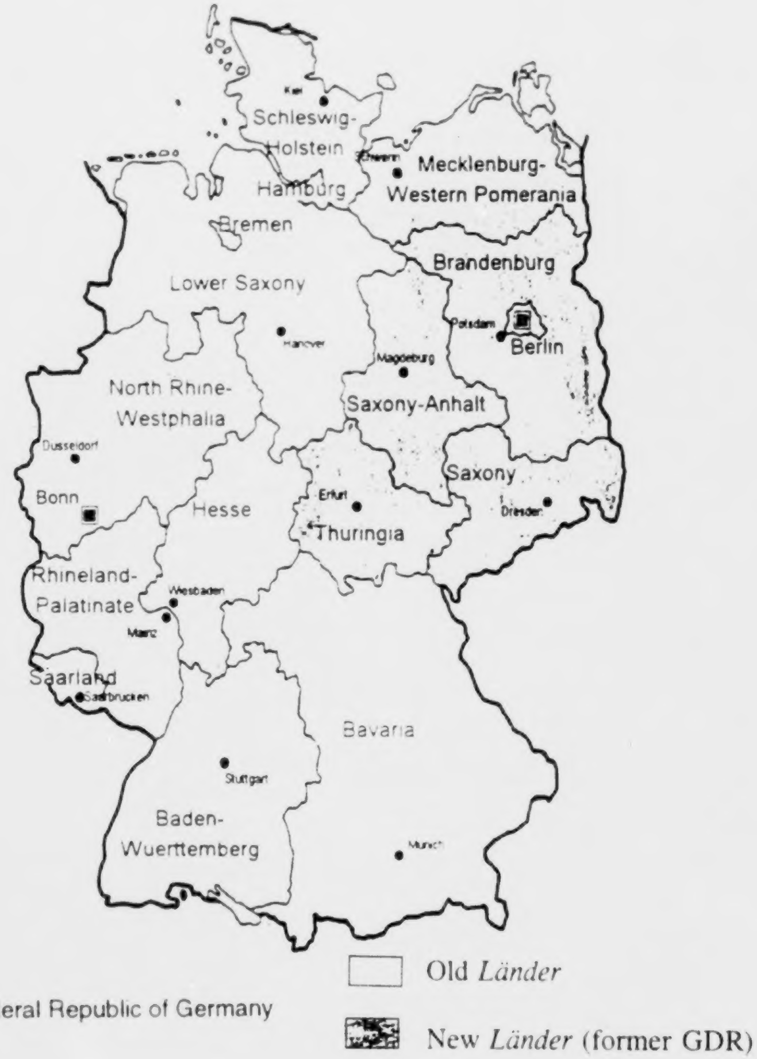
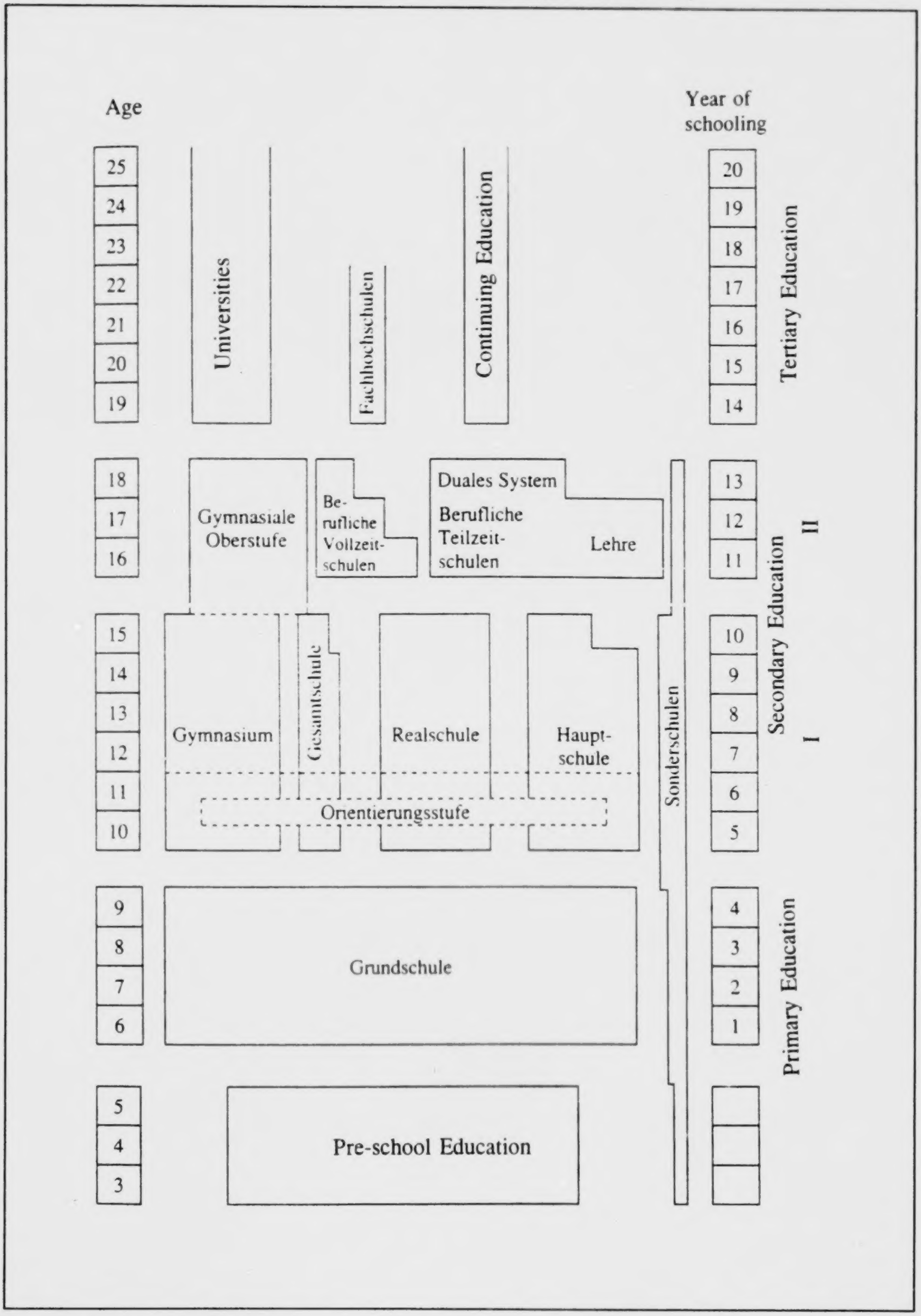
21. Use of Media

1. Map of the Federal Republic of Germany


Kiel
Schleswig-Holstein
Schwerin
Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania
Hamburg
Bremen
Lower Saxony
Brandenburg
Hanover
Potsdam
Berlin
Magdeburg
North Rhine-Westphalia
Saxony-Anhalt
Dusseldorf
Saxony
Bonn
Hesse
Erfurt
Dresden
Thuringia
Rhineland-Palatinate
Wiesbaden
Mainz
Saarland
Saarbrucken
Bavaria
Stuttgart
Baden-Wuerttemberg
Munich
Old Länder
Federal Republic of Germany
New Länder (former GDR)

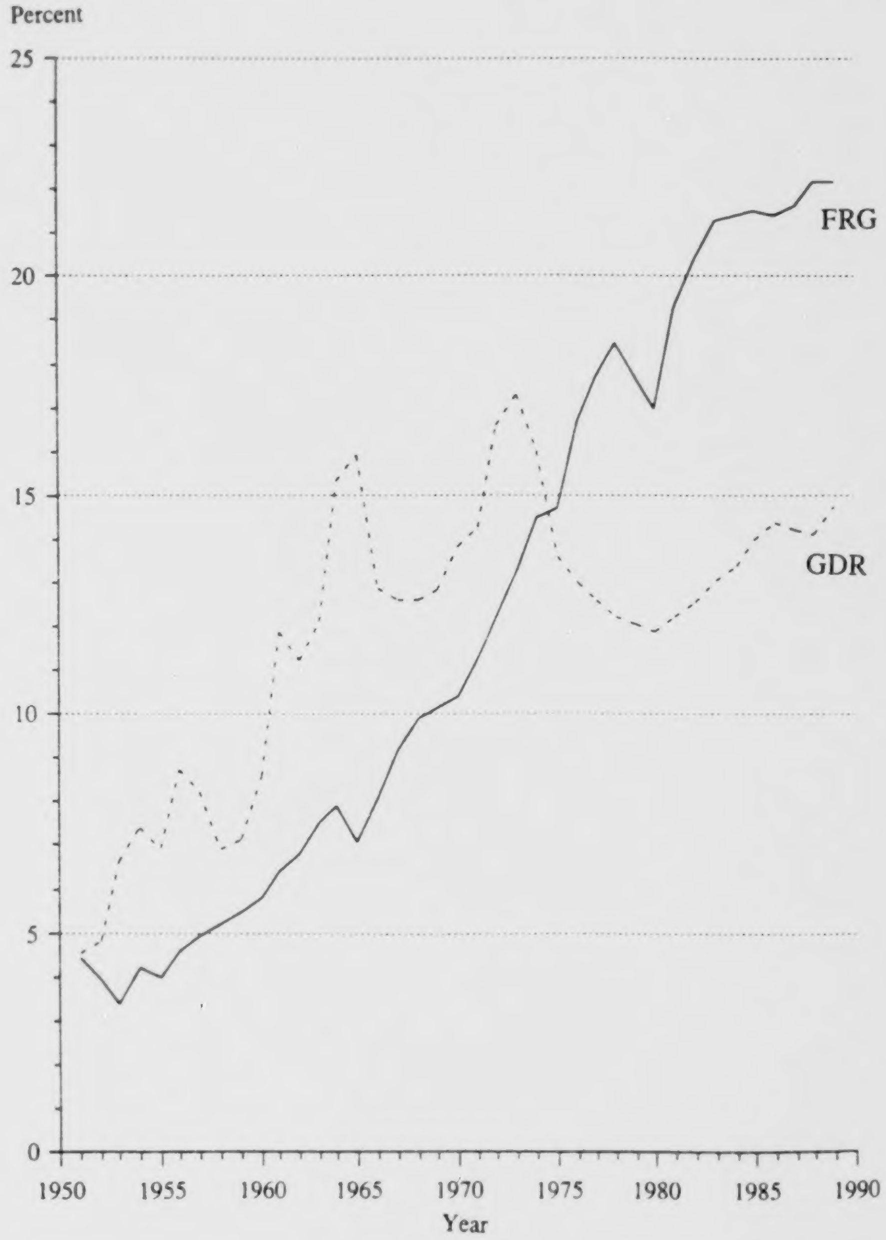
Source: Nuissl 1994, p. 10

2. Basic Structure of the Educational System in the Federal Republic of Germany


Age
25
24
23
22
21
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
Universities
Fachhochschulen
Continuing Education
Year of schooling
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
Tertiary Education
Gymnasiale Oberstufe
Be-rufliche Vollzeit-schulen
Duales System
Berufliche Teilzeit-schulen
Lehre
Secondary Education
II
I
Gymnasium
Gesamtschule
Realschule
Haupt-schule
Sonderschulen
Orientierungsstufe
Grundschule
Primary Education
Pre-school Education

Source: Arbeitsgruppe ... 1994, p. 19

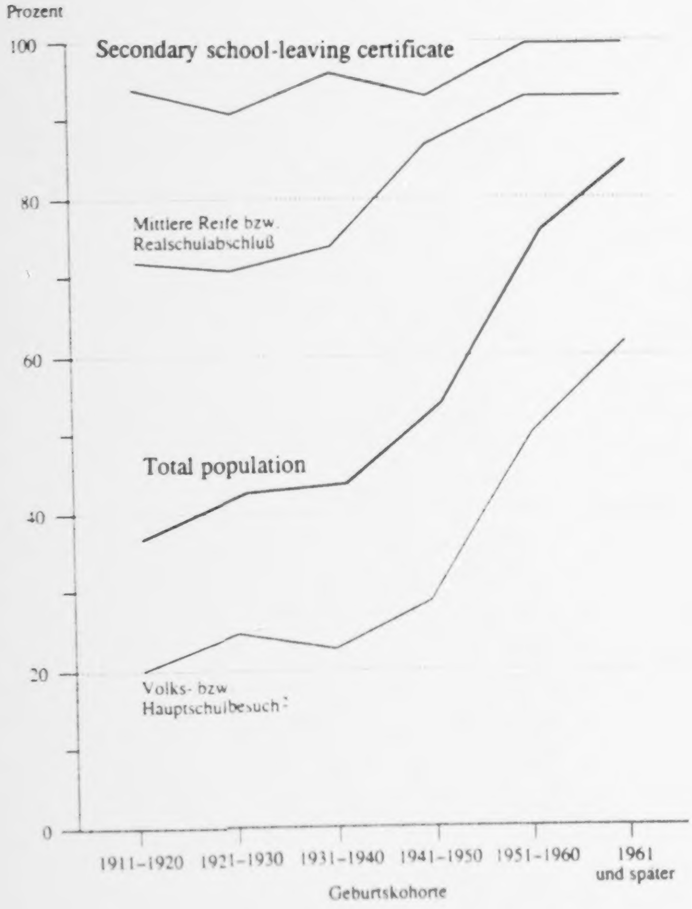
3. Pupils with Secondary School-leaving Certificate (Abitur) (1951-1989)



Datenquelle: KMK, Schüler, Klassen, Lehrer und Absolventen der Schulen 1982 bis 1991 und frühere Jahre sowie Ministerium für Bildung und Wissenschaft der DDR (unveröffentlichtes Material).

Source: Arbeitsgruppe ... 1994, p. 488

4. German Population with Foreign Languages (1986)



[1] N = 3.007

[2] Mit und ohne entsprechendem Abschluß

Datenquelle: Allbus 1986.

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Source: Arbeitsgruppe ... 1994, p. 273

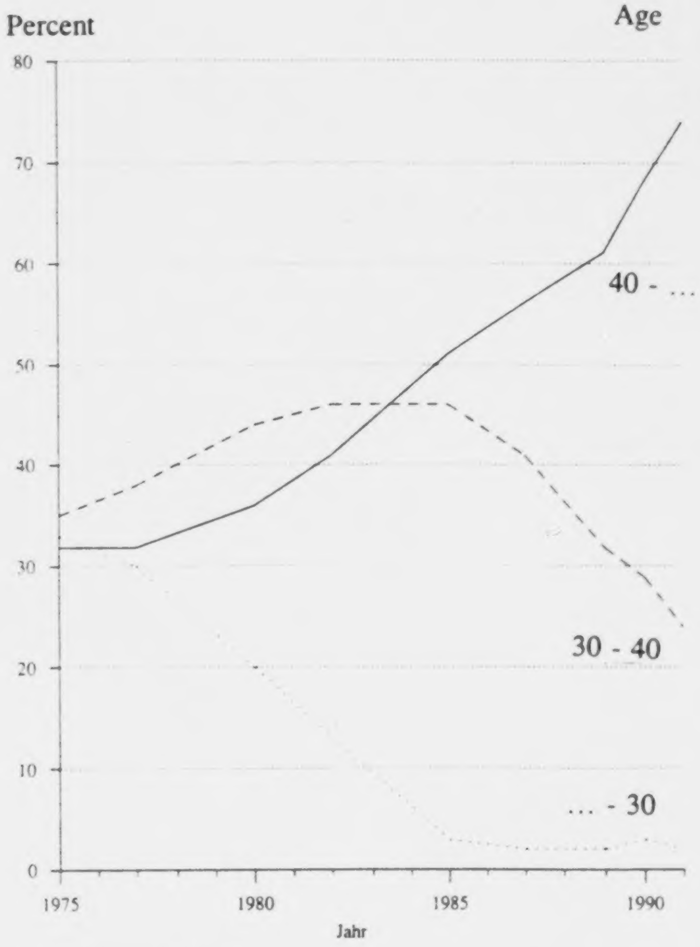
5. Pupil-Teacher-Ratio in General Education Schools (1960-1990)

(Old Länder)

	1960	1970	1980	1990
Grund- und Hauptschulen	35.7	31.6	21.7	17.9
Sonderschulen	20.1	15.3	8.6	6.3
Realschulen	23.0	23.1	21.5	16.2
Gymnasien	17.4	18.8	17.4	13.4
Gesamtschulen			13.5	12.6

Source: Arbeitsgruppe Bildungsbericht ... 1994, 204f.

6. Teachers according to Age Groups (1975-1991)



1 1991 einschließlich Ost-Berlin.

Datenquelle: Statistisches Bundesamt, Fachserie 11, Reihe 1, Allgemeinbildende Schulen 1991 und frühere Jahre.

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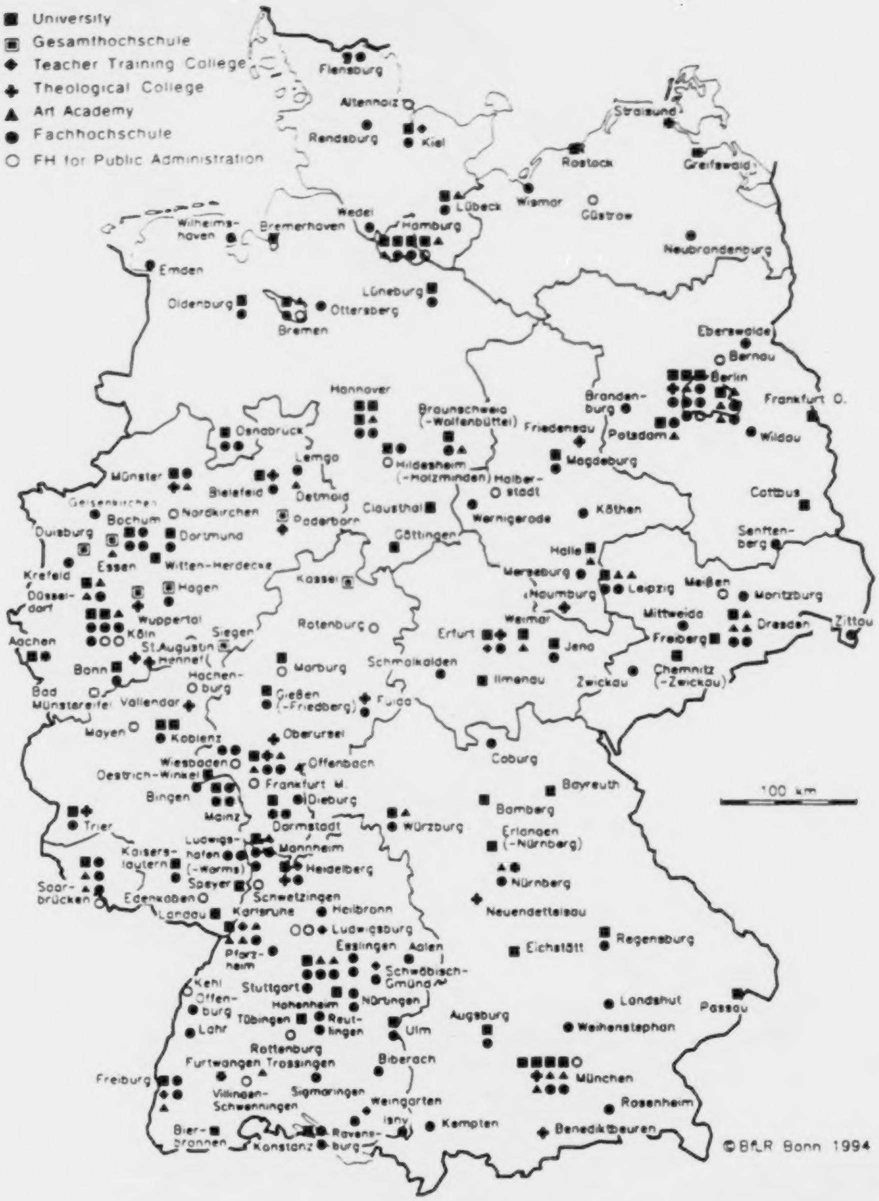
Source: Arbeitsgruppe Bildungsbericht ... 1994 p. 308

7. Locations of Institutions of Higher Education (1993)


■ University
▣ Gesamthochschule
◆ Teacher Training College
✚ Theological College
▲ Art Academy
● Fachhochschule
○ FH for Public Administration
Flensburg
Altenholz
Rendsburg
Kiel
Stralsund
Rostock
Greifswald
Lübeck
Wismar
Güstrow
Wedel
Hamburg
Wilhelmshaven
Bremerhaven
Neubrandenburg
Emden
Oldenburg
Lüneburg
Ottersberg
Bremen
Eberswalde
Bernau
Berlin
Hannover
Braunschweig (-Wolfenbüttel)
Brandenburg
Frankfurt O.
Friedensau
Potsdam
Wildau
Osnabrück
Lemgo
Hildesheim (-Holzminden)
Magdeburg
Halberstadt
Münster
Bielefeld
Detmold
Cottbus
Gelsenkirchen
Bochum
Nordkirchen
Paderborn
Clausthal
Wernigerode
Köthen
Duisburg
Dortmund
Göttingen
Senftenberg
Essen
Witten-Herdecke
Halle
Krefeld
Kassel
Merseburg
Meißen
Moritzburg
Düsseldorf
Hagen
Naumburg
Leipzig
Wuppertal
Weimar
Mittweida
Zittau
Aachen
Köln
Siegen
Rotenburg
Erfurt
Jena
Freiberg
Dresden
St. Augustin
Hennef
Bonn
Marburg
Schmalkalden
Chemnitz (-Zwickau)
Hachenburg
Ilmenau
Zwickau
Bad Münstereifel
Vallendar
Gießen (-Friedberg)
Fulda
Mayen
Koblenz
Oberursel
Coburg
Wiesbaden
Offenbach
Oestrich-Winkel
Frankfurt M.
Bayreuth
Bingen
Dieburg
100 km
Mainz
Bamberg
Trier
Darmstadt
Würzburg
Ludwigshafen (-Worms)
Mannheim
Erlangen (-Nürnberg)
Kaiserslautern
Heidelberg
Speyer
Nürnberg
Saarbrücken
Edenkoben
Schwetzingen
Neuendettelsau
Landau
Karlsruhe
Heilbronn
Ludwigsburg
Regensburg
Pforzheim
Esslingen
Aalen
Eichstätt
Schwäbisch-Gmünd
Kehl
Stuttgart
Offenburg
Hohenheim
Nürtingen
Landshut
Passau
Tübingen
Reutlingen
Augsburg
Lahr
Ulm
Weihenstephan
Rottenburg
Biberach
Furtwangen
Trossingen
München
Freiburg
Villingen-Schwenningen
Sigmaringen
Rosenheim
Weingarten
Isny
Kempten
Bierbronnen
Konstanz
Ravensburg
Benediktbeuren
©BfLR Bonn 1994

Draft: H. Peisert / G. Framhein, according to Statistisches Bundesamt: Studenten an Hochschulen WS 1992/93. (Main locations only, regional branches are usually not shown. New Lander: without institutions to be dissolved. Boundaries of the Lander). Cartography: Bundesforschungsanstalt fur Landeskunde und Raumordnung

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Source: Freisert/Framheim 1994, p.48

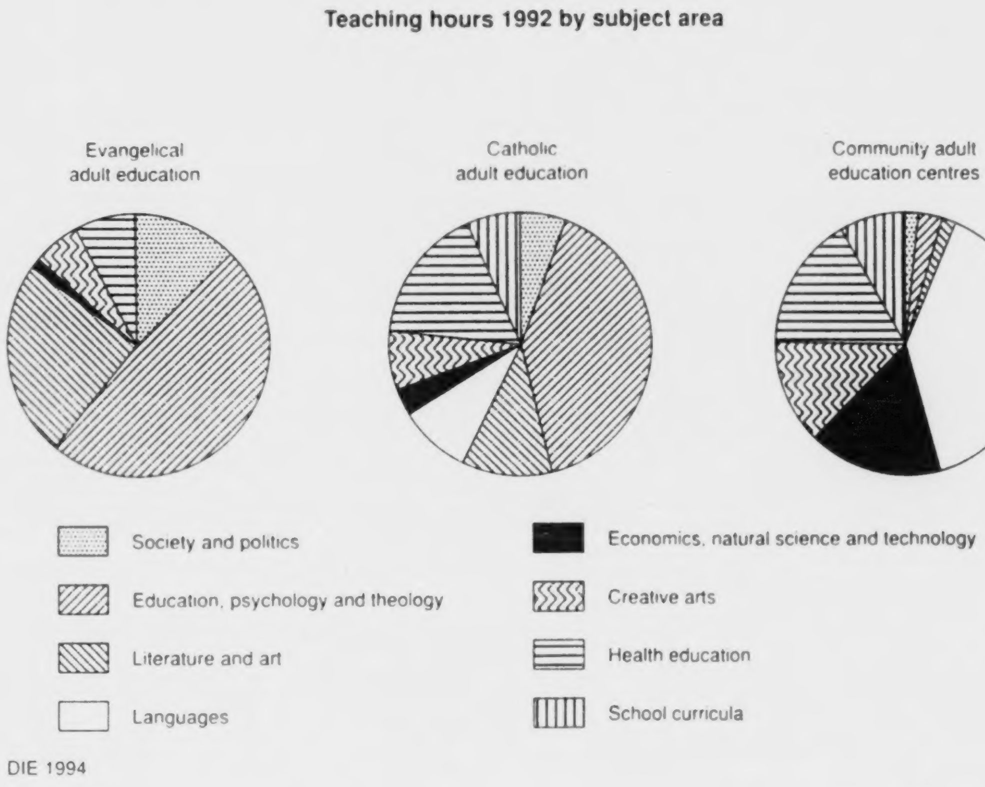
8. First Year Students with Vocational Qualifications (1985-1993)

(in Percent)

Wintersemester	Percent
1985/86	25
1987/88	28
1990/91	35
1993/94	38

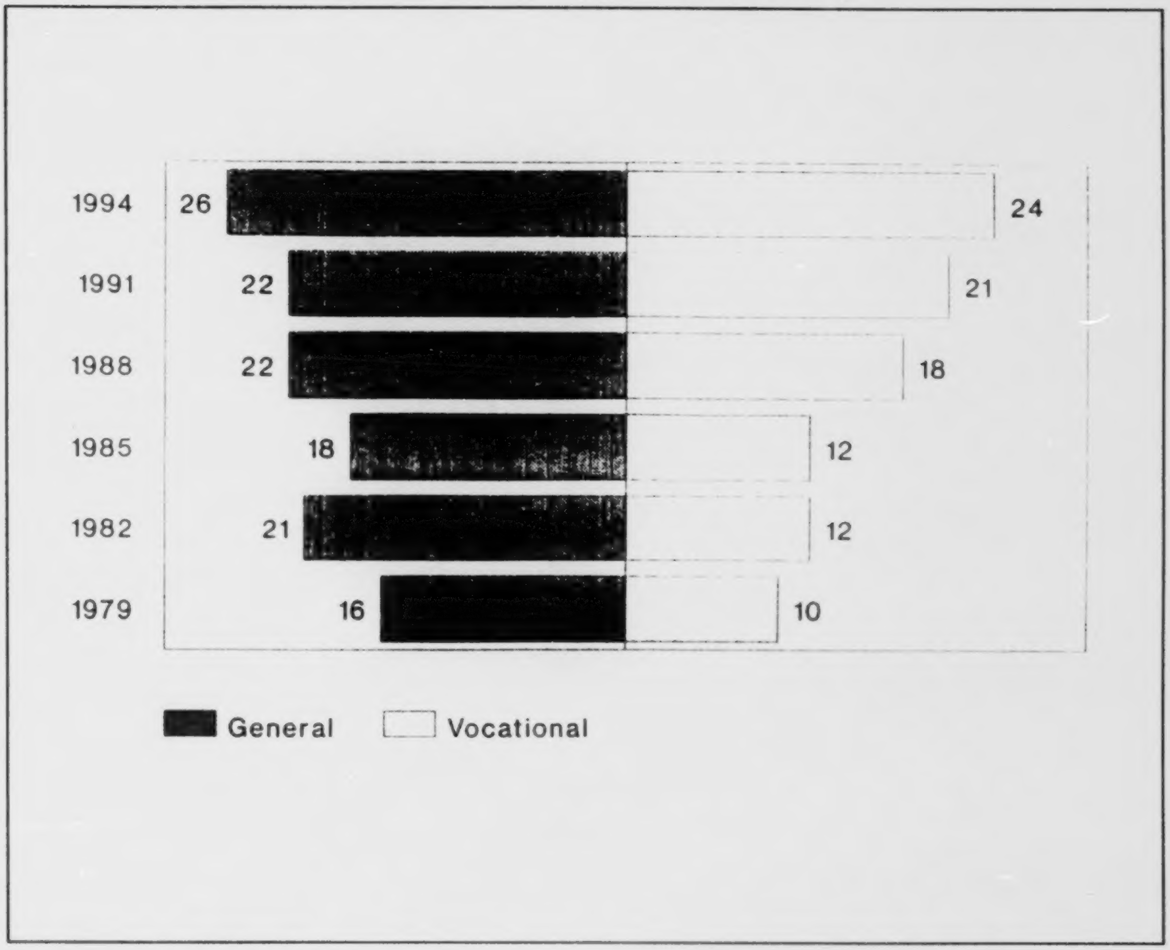
Source: Hochschul-Informations-System

9. Teaching Hours by Subject Area (1992)



Source: Nuissl 1994, p. 26

10. Participation in General and Vocational Continuing Education (1979-1994)



Source: Kuwan 1996, p. 16+23

11. Participation in Continuing Education according to Age (1979-1994)

Continuing Education (en total)	1979	1982	1985	1988	1991	1994
19-34	34	38	32	43	44	49
35-49	21	31	25	37	40	47
50-64	11	14	14	20	23	28

Source: Kuwan 1996, p. 28

12. Participation in Continuing Education according to Educational Qualifications (1979-1994)

	1979	1982	1985	1988	1991	1994
Lower	16	19	14	23	22	29
Intermediate	29	37	34	44	44	47
Higher (Abitur)	43	48	44	53	57	60

Source: Kuwan 1996, p. 30

13. Participation in Continuing Education according to Vocational Education (1979-1994)

	1979	1982	1985	1988	1991	1994
No vocational training	12	11	9	18	18	19
Aprrenticeship/Vocational School	21	27	22	32	33	39
Higher education degree	45	58	50	53	59	64

Source: Kuwan 1996, p. 32

14. Participation in Continuing Education according to Employment (1979-1994)

	1979	1982	1985	1988	1991	1994
Employed	26	34	28	39	41	50
Unemployed	16	20	18	27	28	29

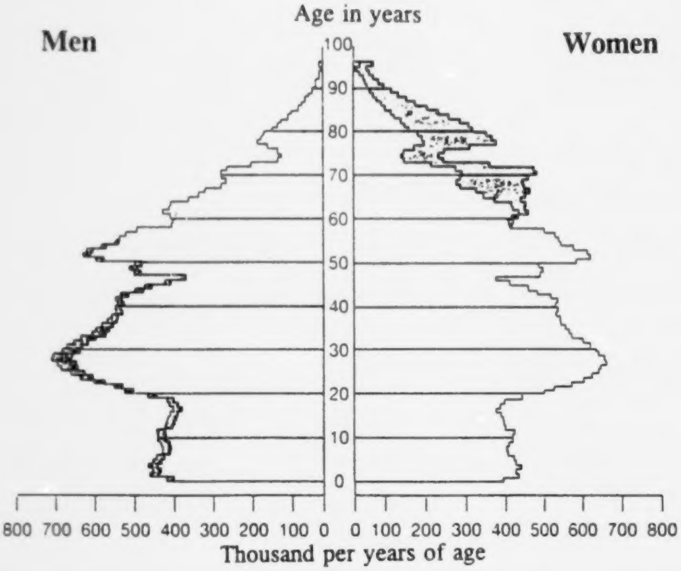
Source: Kuwan 1996, p. 34

15. Participation in Continuing Education according to Sex (1979-1994)

	1979	1982	1985	1988	1991	1994
Women	19	25	22	32	35	40
Men	27	32	28	37	39	44
Difference	8	7	6	5	4	4

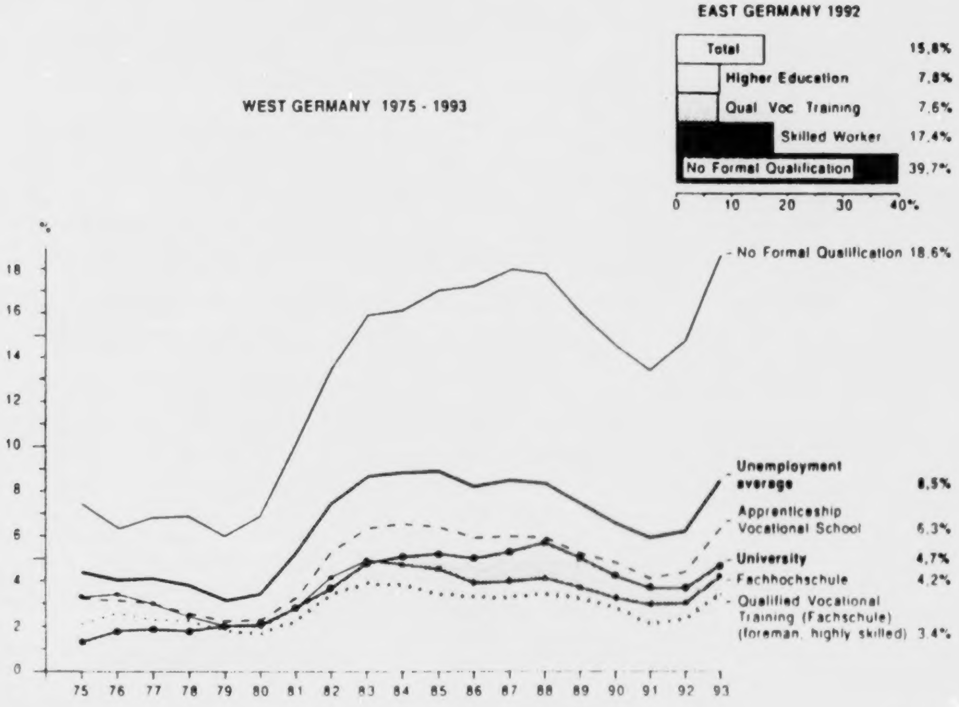
Source: Kuwan 1996, p. 40

16. Population Structure in Germany



Source: Statistisches Bundesamt 1994, p. 27

17. Unemployment according to Educational Qualification (1975-1993).
(in Percent)



Unenployment in % of employed persons with the same qualification 1990 - 1993 estimated

Source: Buttler/Tessaring (1993), p. 470

Source: quoted from Peisert/Framheim 1994, p. 112

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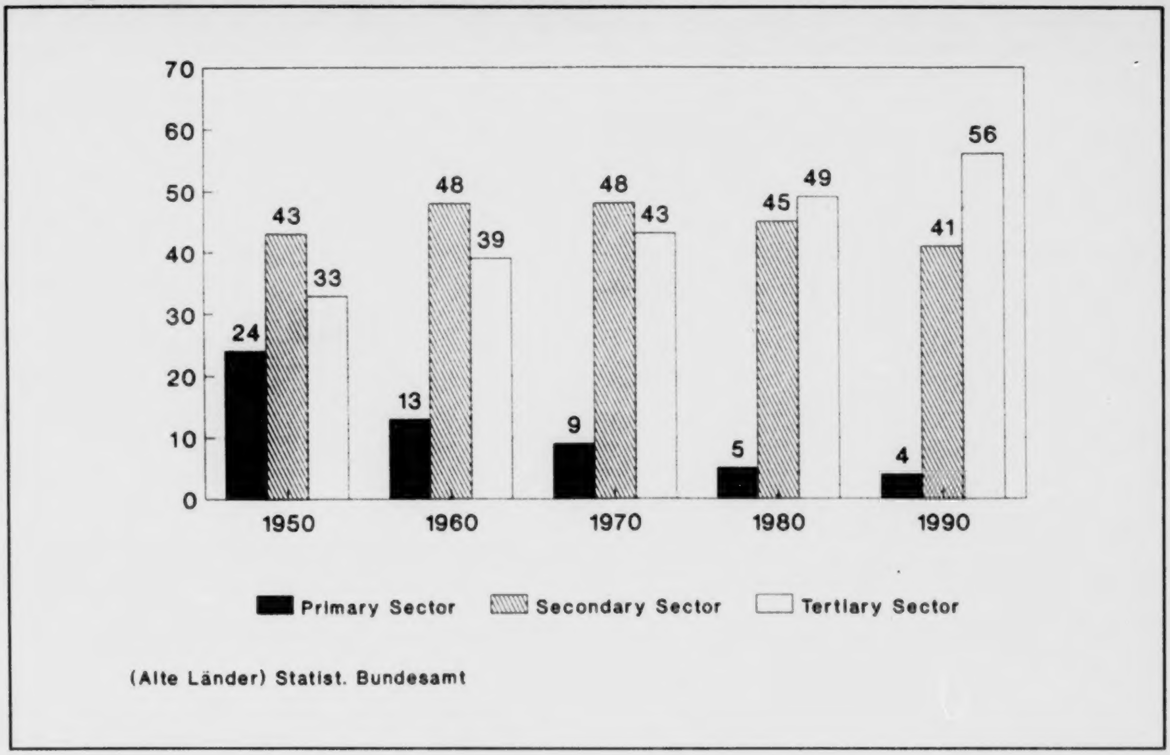
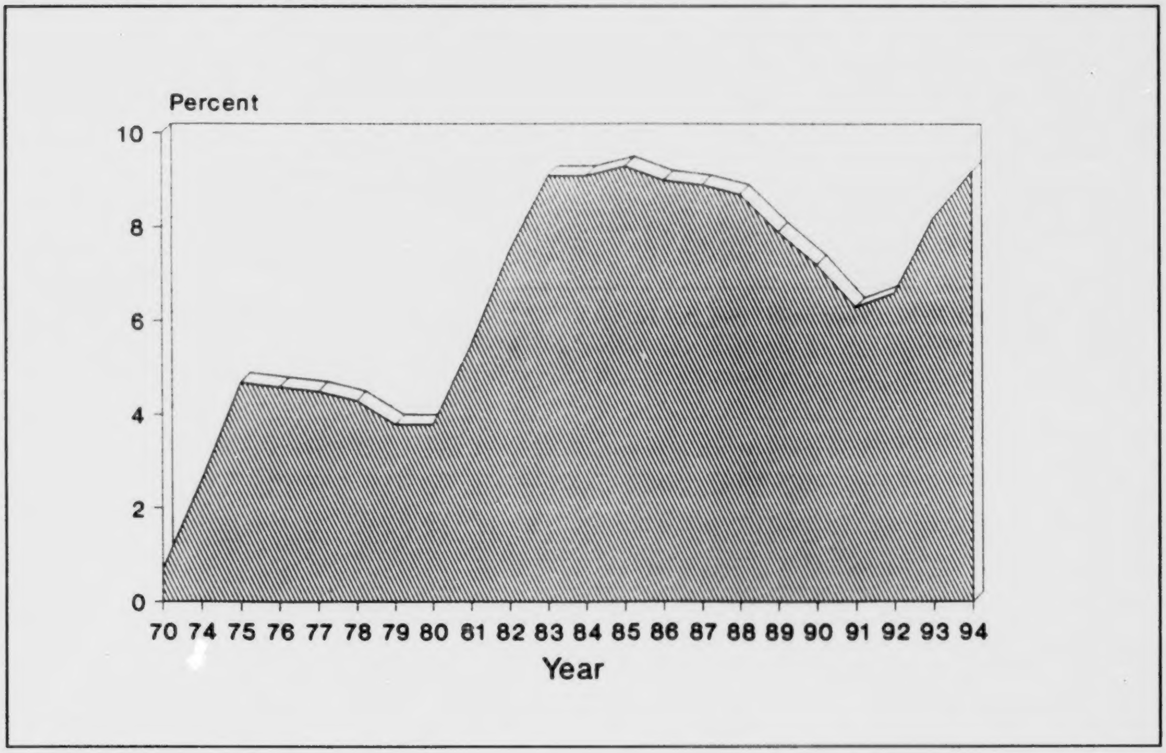
18. Employed according to Economic Sectors (1950-1993)



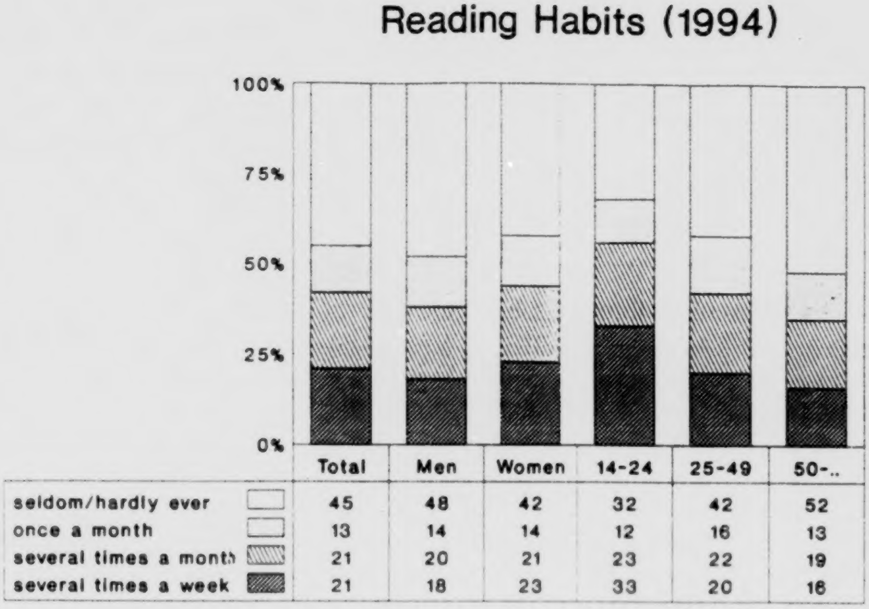
Source: Statistisches Bundesamt 1994, p. 83.

19. Development of Unemployment (1970-1994)



Source: Statistisches Bundesamt 1994, p. 89.

20. Reading Habits (1994)



		Total	Men	Women	14-24	25-49	50-..
seldom/hardly ever	☐	45	48	42	32	42	52
once a month	☐	13	14	14	12	16	13
several times a month	▨	21	20	21	23	22	19
several times a week	▨	21	18	23	33	20	16

Source: Media-Analyse 1994

21. Use of Media

Of every 100 interviewees the following number have practiced the activities specified "in the last week or at the weekend":

	Population (total)	14-21 year-olds
watching television	86	82
reading newspapers, magazines	68	49
listening to the radio	64	66
listening to CDs, LPs, MCs	34	66
reading a book	33	36
watching a video	19	36
using an encyclopedia	9	12
using a computer	9	18
playing videogames	5	12

Source: BAT Freizeit-Forschungsinstitut (1995)

22. Public Spending in Education (1965-1991)

Year	Expenditure on Education					
	Total	of which				
		Nursery Education, Out-of-school Youth Education	Schools	Institutions of Higher Education	Continuing Education	Assistance Schemes
	in percent of total public spending					
1965	11.2	0.4	7.3	2.5	0.2	0.3
1970	14.1	0.5	8.4	3.5	0.3	0.8
1975	15.8	0.7	9.2	3.8	0.3	1.2
1980	15.1	0.7	8.6	3.5	0.5	1.2
1985	14.1	0.7	7.7	3.5	0.5	0.9
1986	14.1	0.7	7.7	3.7	0.5	0.8
1987	14.1	0.8	7.6	3.8	0.5	0.7
1988	13.9	0.8	7.4	3.8	0.4	0.7
1989	13.7	0.8	7.2	3.8	0.4	0.7
1990	12.6	0.7	6.4	3.7	0.4	0.6
1991	12.6	0.8	6.5	3.6	0.4	0.8
	in percent of gross national product					
1970	4.1	0.13	2.5	1.01	0.08	0.15
1975	5.5	0.24	3.2	1.32	0.10	0.43
1980	5.2	0.24	3.0	1.20	0.16	0.42
1985	4.6	0.23	2.6	1.17	0.16	0.29
1986	4.6	0.23	2.5	1.19	0.16	0.26
1987	4.6	0.25	2.5	1.23	0.16	0.24
1988	4.4	0.25	2.4	1.21	0.14	0.22
1989	4.3	0.25	2.3	1.19	0.13	0.21
1990	4.2	0.25	2.2	1.25	0.13	0.21
1991	4.3	0.25	2.2	1.20	0.14	0.26

Source: Basic and Structural Data 1995/96, p. 139

Chapter 8

TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING IN SPAIN

by CREA[1]

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[1] The members of CREA are Ernest Alcoba, Ana Ayuste, M. Jos Brians, Montserrat Casamitjana, Carmen Elboj, Merce Espanya, Montse Fisas, Ramon Flecha, Alfons Formariz, Miquel Fort, Victoria dels Angels Garcia, J. Antonio Garcia Suarez, Paloma Garcia, Aitor Gomez, Rosa Larena, Jordi Lleras, Josep Masdeu, Alfons Medina, Lidia Puigvert, Montse Sanchez, Marta Soler, Iolanda Tortajada i Nria Valls.

INTRODUCTION

The Center of Research for Adult Education (CREA[1]), is working on a horizontal and communicative project. We understand theories of AE as theories of education, and theories of education as social theories. Our main focus is to develop a new critical theory for the new forms of adult education which are exploding within our current information society. This theory is being constructed by researchers from different disciplines (adult educators, sociologists, pedagogists, psychologists,...), through social movements, and by practitioners and participants in AE. We cooperate with all of them.

Some of our projects include:

1. Adult education participation
    - sponsored by (Unesco Institute for Education (UIE) in Hamburg), the Governments of Catalonia and Galicia and CIDE (belonging to the Government of Spain);
2. Basic capacities of adult population
    - sponsored by UIE, Governments of Catalonia and Canary Islands and the CIDE;
3. Numeracy at the workplace
    - founded by a European Union Task Force and developed in a joint project between SVE (Netherlands), Scotland and CREA;
4. Communicative capacities and social development
    - supported by the General Direction for Science and Technology of the Spanish Government (DGICYT).

The methodology we have developed combines quantitative and qualitative methodologies and is based on dialogue within communicative situations. Using the above combination of methodologies we are able to include the interpretations of those persons who are often culturally excluded.

The communicative perspective of CREA comes from the interaction between communicative experiences of AE and communicative social theories. The team of CREA has participated in the foundation of the Spanish Federation of Associations of Adult Education (FAEA), in the Spanish Association of Professors of AE (Grupo 90), member of FAEA and in the Federation of Associations of Participants in AE (FACEPA).

1. The Transition Towards Lifelong Learning in Spain

Education in Spain is currently experiencing a profound transformation. We are assisting in an exciting explosion of changes related to the kind of society we are developing -- the information society.

The industrial society has now been overcome. The impact of the information society is more transcendental and things are changing faster than in the industrial one (Castells, 1993). Information is becoming the determining factor of all social and economic areas. Mental resources -like the selection and processing of information- have taken priority over material resources. These transformations have had a greater affect on processes than on products and the attention has shifted from the productive function to the commercial-design function.

TABLE 1

INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY	INFORMATION SOCIETY
. Material resources.	. Mental resources.
. Production of material objects.	. Process of information.
. New products	. New processes.
. Elements of productive process: capital+material resources+job.	. Elements of productive process: capital+material resources+job+information.
. Quantity and homogeneity are important.	. Quality and diversity are important.
. Full time job.	. Strong decrease of jobs.
. Strong decreasing of jobs in the agricultural sector.	. Strong decrease of both agricultural and industrial sectors.
. Priority to the industrial sector.	. A new sector comes up: the information one.
. Society divided in three social groups: upper class, middle class and lower class.	. Society of two thirds: 1/3 of population is socially excluded.

This panorama is generating a change in the nature of jobs created and, therefore, a transformation of skills is needed to qualify for these jobs. Furthermore, the unfolding of social life in diverse areas depends, more and more, on cultural capital.

The information society is generating both exploding changes in all social areas and an interest in reinforcing the developments provoked through the educational system. Education is becoming the key to involvement in the new society. In such a society where information becomes the essential element for economic development, education is understood as a process which motivates the development of skills necessary for processing information within different contexts: work, social and cultural. At the same time, although the information society creates economic, social and cultural development, it also generates a relative increasing of old inequalities, in addition to the generation of new ones.

If we look at Spain for example, in 1993 - with a total population of 40 million people- statistics show that 1,5 million people lived on less than 21.400 pesetas per month (172 U.S. dollars) and 8 million people lived with less than 42.800 pesetas per month (342 U.S. dollars).

TABLE 2

SPANISH PEOPLE WITH LOW INCOMES PER MONTH IN SPAIN(1993)

incomes per month	population
less than 21,400 pts (U.S.$172)	1.5 million (3.75%)
less than 42,800 pts (U.S.$343)	8 million (20%)

Source: Foessa report and INE (National Institute of Statistics)

Studies have already been concluded, explaining the phenomenon of social dualization (Gorz, 1983). New information technologies generate new specific skills; the labor market is, of course, going to concentrate on the selection of the "best" persons for working with new technologies to the social exclusion of the others. For most countries and people, the promised land of the leisure society is becoming an unemployment society.

TABLE 3

ACTIVE POPULATION; DIVIDED AMONG SOCIAL CLASSES. (1993)

working class	low qualified workers	qualified workers	middle class
37,2	20,0	15,8	27,0

Source: INE, National Institute of Statistics

ACTIVITY AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(16 - 64 Years Old)

	activity[2]	employment[3]	unemployment[4]	Unemployment[5]
1991	60,4	51,6	14,6	13,6
1992	60,2	50,5	16,2	15,0
1993	60,5	48'3	20,3	18,9
1994	60,8	47,8	21,4	20,0
1995	61,0	48,6	20,3	19,1

Source: Economic reports: employment, unemployment and labor reform

[2] active population/ population from 16 to 64 years old.

[3] Employees from 16 to 64 yeas old/ population from 16 to 64 years old.

[4] unemployed/ active population

[5] unemployed/ potencially active

Because of the relevance of education in the information society, the excluded are going to be those with lower levels of education. People with high levels of education will always have more access to work and to higher level positions, while people with low levels of education will have difficulties. Education thus becomes one of the mechanisms for social selectio

TABLE 4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BETWEEN 30 and 44* YEARS OLD.
CONCERNING FINISHED LEVEL OF SCHOOLING.

LEVEL OF SCHOOLING	UNEMPLOYMENT RATE %
illiteracy or without studies	35,56
primary studies	22,90
secondary studies	20,17
vocational and professional studies	17,96
university studies	10,00

Source: Active Population Report. Fourth quarter, 1994.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING STUDENT'S STUDIES. 1992

without studies	0,2
primary studies	5,8
certificate of primary studies	9,5
school graduate	29,3
access to university	17,1
vocational training I	11,6
vocational training II	11,5
University	16,0

Source: Department of Labor

* for exemple: the age group with finished studies

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Cultural selection is related to social selection. On the one hand, within those social contexts where people have low educational levels, people will choose low qualified professions. These choices carry a strong possibility of future job loss or temporary employment. These choices mean remaining in the underprivileged sector. On the other hand, those sectors with high educational levels are viewed positively and they control the mechanisms to access culture.

As education means the key to be involved in the new society and the possibility to escape from social exclusion -- it becomes lifelong and lifewide. From this new point of view of education as lifelong learning , Spain is developing new policies to monitor and manage the changes.

In the 1990's, Spain developed a new Law for the General System of Education (LOGSE[2]). Its main goal is "diversity" and it tries to adapt to the new socio-economic and cultural changes. Also,

the Law of University Reform (LRU), was created in 1983 in order to develop the kind of universities needed by the new society. There are several changes among the different learning environments, all of them with a global, lifelong orientation.

Each of the changes Spain is developing belong to a process of change towards lifelong learning within the information society. Analyses have already been carried out by different social sectors regarding the above laws, indicating the negative influence of some educational policies which can promote the dualization of society.

However, because we are in a process of transformation, it is possible to generate new educational policies to prevent a deeper gap between those suffering from social exclusion and those few, privileged people profiting from a better socio-economic status.

2. The Education Reform: from the industrial to the information society

The educational transformation started in the 1970s, when the General Law of Education (LGE), developed what we call in Spain General Basic Education (EGB). The LGE was created during the last period of the industrial society, and its main goal was to equalize social opportunities. Studies made after its implementation demonstrate, however, how the people, at the end of their schooling, faced more inequalities than before they started.

In 1987, the government responded to the new socioeconomic and cultural situation by elaborating a new education law. The Proposal for the Education Reform was completed in 1988 and included a specific document about occupational education. In 1989, this proposal was followed by The White Book for the Reform of the Education System. Finally, in the 1990s, the Law for the General System of Education (LOGSE), was accepted. The LOGSE primarily differed from the older law, LGE, in its discourse. Rather than defending equality, the LOGSE defends diversity.

To promote diversity within the educational framework poses a real challenge. We must, of course, respect diversity concerning styles of learning, as well as diversity of content and socially directed ways of gaining knowledge. At the same time, the final goal must be to achieve equality. If not, it means that from an early age, some children will be motivated to a maximum efficiency regarding curricula goals, while others will adapt to the minimum skills and attitudes. In the one case, education contributes to the development of competitive workers and in the other, contributes to the development of underprivileged workers.

Within the actual education reform, all the social sectors need to take into account the risk of increasing the social dualization and, therefore, the inequalities, in order to develop goals generating more democratic environments.

TABLE 5

POPULATION FROM 4 YEARS ON CONCERNING IF THEY STUDY OR THEY DO NOT.

AGE GROUPS	POPULATION		
	Total	Studying	Not studying
Total	37.031.228	9.784.936	27.246.292
From 4 to 9	2.854.922	2.753.848	101.074
From 10 to 14	3.081.334	3.037.604	43.730
From 15 to 19	3.334.341	2.279.173	1.055.168
From 20 to 24	3.230.321	1.014.108	2.216.213
From 25 to 29	3.096.503	332.839	2.763.664
From 30 to 34	2.855.488	140.897	2.714.591
From 35 to 39	2.500.833	79.786	2.421.047
From 40 to 44	2.396.673	50.488	2.346.185
From 45 on	13.680.813	96.193	13.584.620

Source: Census of population, 1991.

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[2] The statistics we will see show information still based upon the old Law of Education,LGE. So, the age group do not agree with the actual but, nevertheless, the statistics still are significant.

TABLE 6

3. Towards a new tendency: decentralization of educative competencies.

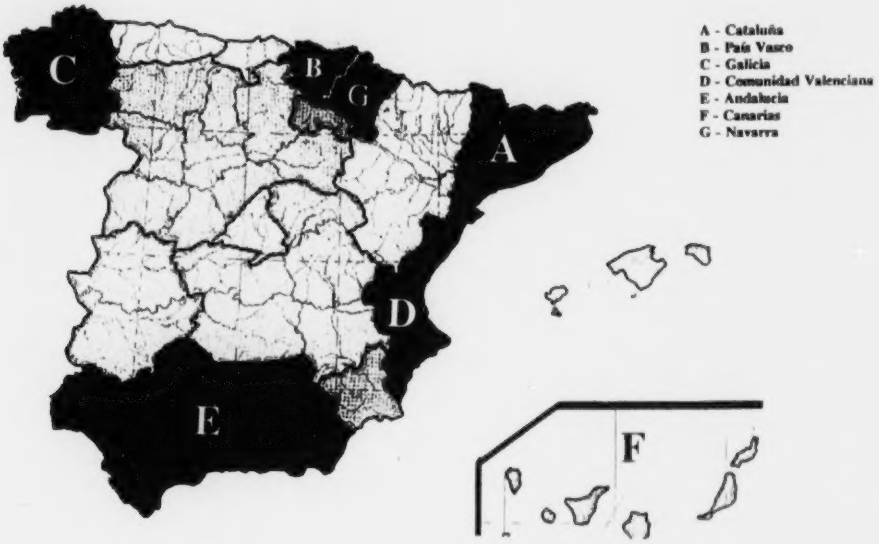

TABLE 7

CENTRALIZED EDUCATIVE COMPETENCIES			DECENTRALIZED EDUCATIVE COMPETENCIES			SHARED COMPETENCIES		
ADMINISTRATIVE	ECONOMIC	MANAGEMENT	ADMINISTRATIVE	ECONOMIC	MANAGEMENT	ADMINISTRATIVE	ECONOMIC	MANAGEMENT
General Regulations	Basic patterns for economic distribution	School Council belonging to the State	Legislation development	Global budget of the economy	Establishing the School Council	Creation and Elimination of public centers	Formalization of economic distribution to private schools	Regulation for participation
Basic requirements		Educative administration	School programmes	Personnel Payments	Belonging to the Conference of counsellors of education	Administrative authorization for private centers	Authorization of payments for extraactivities	Creation of other School Councils
General Programme of education		Educative programme			Specific programmes	Election of unipersonnel organisms in public centers		
		Financing of the education			Modality of Council of Center	Cessation of the directorship		
		Organizative ambit				Inspection of the process of selection of teachers in public schools		
						Application of disciplinary measures		
						Liberty of ideology		
						Guarantee of schooling		

TABLE 8

	YEARS						TEACHER
	0-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	
LGE (the old Law of Education)	-	-	kindergarten		pre-school		any one qualified as a teacher
LOGSE (the new Law of Education)	pre-school (first cycle)			pre-school (second cycle)			an expert in child education.

There are three significant characteristics in the first chapter of the LOGSE: 1) identification of the professional qualifications required for teachers of pre-school education, 2) the minimum age limit for entering pre-school education, and 3) the non-compulsory condition of the whole period (0-6 years old).

The LOGSE defines pre-school education as the initial phase of a much larger and differentiated, organized learning process.

From this perspective, the quality of the curricula is very important, not only because it contributes to a better development of the child, but also because it contributes to his/her socialization. The curricula should, therefore, concentrate on projects and programmes which stimulate overall personal development and level the inequalities and which help educational integration.

The first chapter of the LOGSE establishes two main goals for the children: to discover their context and themselves.

The political measures which guarantee access to pre-school education are not yet adequately developed in the LOGSE. Although pre-schooling is considered a priority within the reform law, it is not compulsory. While some children have access from an early age to education in non-fee paying schools (There are just a few schools ready to accept such a change because of the supposed complexity of such a transformation.), others will not have the chance because of the optionality of the law.

The reform we are developing has elaborated complex goals in the higher compulsory levels of education. Prior to these, however, pre-schooling must challenge all children without losing sight of its goal of achieving equality, rather than increasing differences among them.

All children should have the same opportunities to gain access to high level programmes and projects within the pre-schools in order to gain equal access to compulsory education.

TABLE 9

LAWS ----- YEARS	LGE		LOGSE	
18	Access to university	Vocational Training II	High School	Professional Modules II
17	High School			
16		Vocational Training I	Second Compulsory Grade (second cycle: 14-16) (first cycle: 12-14)	
15				
14	General Basic Education (EGB)			
13				
12			First Compulsory Grade (Initial Education)	
11				
10				
9				
8				
7				
6				

Initial education has changed following the application of the LOGSE. The whole education period currently lasts ten years. All children between the ages of six to sixteen years old must go to school in order to obtain the basic knowledge considered necessary by the government, i.e., the knowledge which will allow people to gain access to the labor market.

Initial education is compulsory and free. It includes the first compulsory grades (from 6 to 12 years old), the second compulsory grades (from 12 to 16 years old) and, finally, the post-compulsory grades before going on to university or vocational training.

Quality of education is guaranteed by the government which establishes common basic contents during the first years and, later on, an adaptable diversification of the contents depending on both the personal development of the children and their needs. Each center, according to its educative administration, establishes the specific curricula for their students. The priorities controlling the quality of education include: teacher training, educational programmes, educational resources, innovation and research.

During these periods, teachers instruct students in self-learning processes in order to give students the necessary basic and general education and competencies needed to gain access to the labor market. Following their initial education, students, through lifelong learning, will be able to adapt to the immediate changes and transformations developed by the information society.

The government guarantees free schooling for each child within their own community. In rural areas, children are able to go to the nearest community school if doing so results in a quality education. In this case, the government provides free services concerning transport and food.

2.1. First compulsory grade

The most important restructuralization refers to the last two years of initial education, with the result that this portion of the education system finishes at 12 instead of 14 years old.

The main focus of this period is to give children a general level of education in order to start a more specialized education in the next compulsory period.

The general contents include knowledge of their natural and social contexts, arts, physical education, languages and mathematics -- all of which are directed towards their general and integral development.

Theories of learning and curriculum are moving from evolutionist to contextual approaches. This progressive change is exemplified by the transfer from the emphasis on Piaget to the emphasis on Vigotsky. This revolutionary author established a relation between cognitive development and socio-cultural contexts. His proposal is a transformative one -- we should change the context in order to achieve a more advanced cognitive development. In the LOGSE, the predominant understanding of Vigotsky retains the relation between cognition and context, but changes the proposal from a transformative conception to an adaptative one. LOGSE says we should rather adapt the cognitive development to the existing contexts.

This "adaptation", once again, can be misunderstood within the implementation of the LOGSE, if it is understood as the way to elaborate different curricula depending on the socio-cultural and socio-economic context of the people. It aims at adapting the level of difficulties according to the context, therefore generating more inequalities between students belonging to high socio-cultural and socio-economic levels and those belonging to the lower levels.

2.2. Second compulsory grade

The most problematic period within the reform has been the period between 12 and 16 years old. This second compulsory period did not exist before and its creation forces educational centers to transform their approach to management, elaboration of the curricula and teachers.

It includes two cycles: the first one (from 12 to 14 years old) and the second one (from 14 to 16 years old) -- both are compulsory and free. It also offers a pluralism of new educational itineraries which promote the specialization of the students. Its main goals are to give the students the basic skills first, and only afterwards to provide them with specific skills needed so as not to be excluded from the labor market.

The research carried out to date shows that, although we are in a transition towards lifelong learning, everyone must participate in some kind of education in order to acquire the intellectual skills and competencies needed not to be excluded from the information society. What is being generated is the opposite.

2.3. Some crucial issues: creativity and civic education

Creativity: Schools, according to the LOGSE, give importance to creativity as part of the whole development of the person. They develop the students' creative competence by respecting the children themselves and their liberty. The main goal being the total and integral development of students. Creativity should be developed as part of the integral development of the students in three areas: personal, social and moral. It should be taught in an interactive and communicative environment.

Civic education: This subject is also considered important within the LOGSE. Transversality is its main characteristic. Each teacher has the responsibility of integrating the topic throughout the whole period of education. There is not a specific subject within the curriculum based on this issue, although there are some educational groups lobbying for one.

Religious education: The LOGSE has established this subject as optional. This is a shift from the old Law of Education, under which religion was compulsory during initial education. Optional religious education has engendered reactions from some groups who continue to think it should be compulsory.

2.4. Post compulsory education

From 16 to 18 years old, the students can either pursue the specific skills needed for access to university or for professions requiring low qualifications or semiqualified people. Those going to high school will acquire, at least, a polyvalent educational base. The main goal of high school is to prepare the students for access to highly qualified, intellectual professions.

On the other hand, there is a difference when we talk about those going to vocational training. Theoretically, it is open to all the students. In reality, it is mostly comprised of those who could not achieve the socially required levels and who do not have the basic knowledge needed for access to good qualified jobs.

People who have not completed compulsory education or whose educative itinerary is not sufficiently high, will neither be able to find good jobs nor to prosper in their daily life. In fact, the preparation they receive in vocational training is primarily orientated towards temporary jobs or even structural unemployment.

TABLE 10

WORKER POPULATION STANDARDS[8]

	1976		1980		1984		1988		1992	
	worker populat. (thousands)	active standard (%)	worker populat. (thousands)	active standard (%)	worker populat. (thousands)	active standard (%)	worker populat. (thousands)	active standard (%)	worker populat. (thousands)	active standard (%)
Ileteracy	499,9	21	353,3	16,1	232,3	18,7	206,6	11,5	160,2	9,9
Without studies	1644,4	39,4	1260,0	32,1	1099,2	25,7	1288,1	25,5	1044,2	21,4
Primary studies	7907,7	52,7	6766,8	47,4	5430	41,1	5013,8	41,1	4416,7	38,9
Vocat. training							791,4	52,9	1140,3	57,4
Middle stud. (no voc.tr.)							3294,0	44,8	4038,5	46,3
Middle stud.	1787,1	42	1998,6	42,0	2599,5	38,7				
Before higher stud.	352,9	71,2	474,2	56,4	516,1	55,5	688,1	56,3	808,5	59,8
Higher stud.	327,9	77,5	386,4	71,7	481,9	69,1	637,5	70,2	804,0	70,8
Total	12520,7	46,8	11239,9	42,4	10359	38,0	11919,6	39,8	12412,4	40

Source: own statistics elaborated from the Permanent Association of AE the last quarters of 1976, 1980, 1984 and 1988 and the third quarter of 1992.

A high number of unprepared young people and adults can impede the development of the new society, where it is crucial to transform people's knowledge into productive power.

However, this situation can be changed by different educational movements through lifelong learning. The reform must be reoriented towards high level of basic and polyvalent education which help people to acquire the training they will need in the following years. The schools must also adapt their contents to the different jobs people will get.

The basic knowledge the students acquire will be the significant educational foundation they will have during the following six or eight decades.

In a lifelong learning society, schools must teach basic knowledge such as educational skills, which do not go out of date, in order to help people acquire the competencies they will use later on in their daily life.

2.5.Teachers training

Teacher training becomes necessary in the implementation of the law. It is understood, not only as an improvement of the education system, but also as a personal advantage. This way the teachers will do, in practice, what the LOGSE requires of them.

The educational profile required in order to become a teacher depends on the subjects taken:

- Graduation from university schools for teachers (three years training) is required in order to be an educator in pre-school education, a teacher in initial education or a teacher of the first cycle of the second compulsory grade.

- Graduation from colleges (four years or more in training) is required in order to be a professor in the second cycle of the second compulsory grade.

The LOGSE also recognizes some experts as part of the teachers' team in subects such as: music, physical education and languages. They will also get the necessary knowledge at university schools for teachers.

After graduation, the LOGSE establishes the general need of lifelong learning as a way of supporting its main educational goals. The LOGSE strengthens the role of teacher-researcher, improving the quality of education with a constructive approach to learning.

2.5.1. Lifelong learning centers: Centros de Educación Permanente (CEPs)

These centers were created in 1984 and represent a significant change in lifelong learning. The "lifelong learning centers" promote interdisciplinary activities which eliminate teacher isolation through cooperative work between teachers from different levels and of different subjects.

Rather than offering formal courses, these centers offer innovative training based on active participation, materials production, exchange of experiences and, of course, theory reflection. Educational research is also essential to the positive development within the lifelong learning centers.

2.5.2. Training within the centers

Teacher training within their own centers is one of the best options for reinforcing the connection between innovation and educational improvement. Nowadays, it is a crucial issue in education politics.

Locating the training within the centers emphasizes the recognition of the teachers' importance and responsibilities concerning curriculum development and control, and the relevance of their functions as teachers. Teacher training within the centers implies reflection and revision of contents, goals, methodologies and results carried on in their schools.

2.6.Quality of education

Quality of education is a priority goal within the education policy. The established guidelines include:

a. personal development of the students and their access to culture
b. adaptation to the needs and interests of the students
c. response of the education system to the demands of a democratic, complex and technological society
d. extinction of social and cultural inequalities among students
e. cohesion of both curriculum goals and the educational supply
f. decrease of school failure and drop outs
g. general increase in the levels of efficiency, knowledge and skills acquisition of the students.

3. The Transformation of Tertiary Education

3.1. Access to tertiary education

Tertiary education includes access to university or to high professional training in order to later obtain highly privileged positions in both the socio-economic and the socio-cultural life.

3.1.1. Access to high professional training

Within the guidelines established by the first project of the LGE reform, high school was the only access to high professional training. This first project closed the doors towards high professional training to those students with vocational training who wanted to continue their studies. They faced only one way out -- the labor market. Soon after, different education and professional movements, as well as worker trade unions, expressed their disagreement and, finally, opened a new avenue of access: -- Vocational Training II. Through this new programme, the training received by the students is highly specialized and allows them to find well-qualified technical jobs.

3.1.2. Access to university.

The 1983 Law of Universities also changed the structures and goals of universities. It identified the need for scientific development, professional training and cultural expansion as key factors towards the next century.

The most common ways to access university are either through the high schools or through exams for people over 25 years old.

TABLES 11

TOTAL STUDENTS REGISTERED

COURSES	88-89	89-90	90-91	91-92	92-93	93-94	94-95	95-96
TOTAL REGISTERED	1,027.018	1,093.086	1,140.572	1,209.108	1,274.444	1,365.737	1,434.590	1,503.905

Source: *Study on University studies in Spain*, National Institute of statistics, 1996.

REGISTERED STUDENTS CONCERNING OPTIONS[*]

OPTIONS	REGISTERED
SCIENTIFIC-TECHNICAL	93.029
HEALTH SCIENCES	70.353
SOCIAL SCIENCES	83.453
HUMANITIES	38.586
ARTS	955
TOTAL	286.376

Source: *University studies, 1st and 2nd cycle*. National Institute of statistics, 1995/9

REGISTERED STUDENTS.

OVER 25 YEARS	37.772
TOTAL	324.148

Source: *University studies, 1st and 2nd cycle*. National Institute of statistics, 1995/96.

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[*] results concerning access of students from 25 years or over are excluded.

TABLE12

REGISTERED STUDENTS CONCERNING AUTONOMIES

AUTONOMIES	94-95	95-96
ANDALUCIA	230103	246416
ARAGON	41860	43868
PRINCIPADO DE ASTURIAS	40383	41148
BALEARES	13522	13350
CANARIAS	43941	46245
CANTABRIA	14115	15062
CASTILLA LA MANCHA	27142	29754
CASTILLA-LEON	99560	103317
CATALUNYA	186203	192154
COMUNIDAD VALENCIANA	129998	132510
EXTREMADURA	22324	23395
GALICIA	86116	88996
COMUNIDAD DE MADRID	247627	257840
REGION DE MURCIA	33205	34776
COMUNIDAD FORAL DE NAVARRA	20217	21098
PAIS VASCO	73325	78718
LA RIOJA	4896	5666
CEUTA Y MELILLA	1459	1629
U.N.E.D.[10]	118594	127963

Source: University studies, 1st and 2nd cycle. National Institute of statistics, 1995/96.

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[10] National University of Distance Learning

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4. The Changes in Adult Education.

4.1. The compensatory conception: a mistake within the first project of the LOGSE.

Research about the "unlevelling effect" is generating a total change in adult education theories, educational practices and adult schooling in Spain.

One of the most relevant changes was made during the elaboration of the actual education reform. Chapter XIV within the 1987 Project for the education Reform, was still based upon the mistaken belief that the actual growth in the number of students would eliminate or decrease the deficiencies of basic education available to future adults. It states: "Basic education must be finished at right age, if not it becomes a compensatory need" (MEC, 1987, p.32). The belief expressed in the chapter identifies the need of adult basic education with the compulsory schooling the adults did not get before.

The old compensatory concept was based on the following five mistakes:

a) Product of the past: the adults who need basic education are those who did not go to school or those who did not complete their studies.
b) Component of underdevelopment: countries that "still" have a "problem" because they still lack a good level of development.
c) The reform as a solution: today's children are the future adults. Therefore, the solution is to extend and improve initial education. That way, basic education will not be necessary in the future.
d) Appropriate age: pre-adult ages are the best for learning. During adulthood people have difficulties and, therefore, the best thing is to concentrate on early education.
e) Parallelism with the school system: education needs to be adapted to the situation facing adults who could not attend school later in life.

4.2. Overcoming the unlevelling effect within the final project.

4.2.1. Unlevelling effect.

The unlevelling effect is produced by the extension of the level of compulsory education established by the LOGSE. The new level of compulsory education established by the LOGSE (1990) is: the Graduate of Secondary Education (GES). It is obtained at the age of sixteen.

Under the former Law of Education (LGE), the compulsory level was set at an earlier age -- at the age of fourteen. At the end of their studies, students could receive some accreditations of primary studies -- "certificado" (if they did not pass) or the school certificate, "graduado" (if they did). The present educational structure extends the pre-adult, compulsory age to 16 years old and implies raising the socially required educational level. All the young people and adults who studied according to the old level of 14 years old are left outside the law.

TABLE 13

PEOPLE OF 16 YEARS OLD OR MORE
BELOW THE COMPULSORY SCHOOL LEVEL

1981	1991	2000 (Predicted)
10.840.029 (38.72%)	22.982.522 (75.29%)	19.986.716 (61.58%)

Source: statistics elaborated from the census of the spanish population in 1981 (INE 1985), 1991 (INE 1994) and from the Del Hoyo & García's population prediction (1988).

Adults and young people who had the compulsory level before the implementation of the LOGSE, do not have it now. The LOGSE has raised and will raise the number of persons who have not completed the new compulsory level established by the law. These people will not have the required level for obtaining a job or for being admitted to any kind of programme. Therefore, they will be in an underprivileged situation.

TABLE 14

PEOPLE OF 16 YEARS OLD OR MORE
BELOW THE COMPULSORY SCHOOL LEVEL

AGE	1981	1991	2000 (Predicted)
16-24	622.877 (10.03%)	3.472.238 (59.29%)	0 (0%)
25-44	2.908.418 (31.29%)	7.097.680 (65.54%)	7.045.757 (58.71%)
45-64	4.430.867 (53.63%)	7.436.141 (87.62%)	7.491.372 (79.01%)
65 and more	2.877.868 (67.92%)	4.976.463 (92.97%)	5.449.587 (91.21%)
Total	10.840.030 (38.71%)	22.982.522 (75.29%)	19.986.716 (61.58%)

Source: statistics elaborated from the census of the Spanish population in 1981 (INE 1985), 1991 (INE 1994) and from the Del Hoyo & García's population prediction (1988).

As a result, lifelong learning becomes more important. It will be necessary for helping people's involvement in the new society.

4.2.2. The new "proper conception"

The assimilation of the unlevelling effect provokes a total change in the conception of adult education. Completely dedicated to adult education, as well as its content, Chapter III means a step forward.

Chapter XII within the 1989 White Book of the Reform, has already changed the five compensatory mistakes, allowing for a new "proper concept." It states: "Basic education required adults to adapt to the present evolution of society" (MEC 1989a: 193). The new "proper conception" is based upon the following ideas:

a) Product of the present and future in evolution:

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the need for basic education is not generated because of deficient schooling, but because of present and future evolution. The information society (Cardoso, 1993) is producing a change in the educative needs that are different from the ones adults had some years before (Castells, 1994). Therefore, it is important to renew all knowledge because initial knowledge no longer serves one for a lifetime.

Some of the assertions concerning this idea within Title III are the extension of adult basic education (art. 52) and the extension of adult education to the second non-compulsory grade (high school).

b) Essential component of development: The more developed the country, the more adult basic education has been adapted to the needs of adults (Jarvis, 1992).

Less developed countries, particularly the ones under a dictatorship, are characterized by the acquired compensatory concept of adult education. Adult education becomes something without importance within the whole society.

The inclusion of socio-cultural activities and vocational training (art. 51.5) in adult education, together with compulsory basic adult education, is one of the idea's assertions.

c) Education reforms produce an unlevelling effect: Each new reform raises the level of basic and compulsory grades.

The LOGSE has raised the completion level of the second compulsory grade to 16 years old. People who had completed the level established prior to the LOGSE are now below the new level. Childhood and youth educational reforms raise the number of adults who have not obtained the level of compulsory education. Chapter III as a whole tries to overcome the unlevelling effect of the actual reform. Otherwise, the priority given to underprivileged sectors (art. 51.3) compromises the overcoming of the unlevelling effect and the cultural and social exclusion generated by the information society.

d) Any age is good for learning: The research carried on during the last three decades concerning adult learning shows how the capacity to learn during adulthood is not better nor worse than during childhood or youth. It is just different. Studies about crystallized intelligence (Cattel 1971) and, nowadays, about practical intelligence (Martin & Scribner 1991, Scribner 1988) and semantic memory are enough to affirm that any age is good for learning. Chapter III proposes to adapt methodologies to adulthood (art. 51.5). It tries to reject using the same methodologies used for children and young people with adults. Usually, the low results obtained from these methodologies are used to justify that adulthood is not the right age to learn. Instead of that, Chapter III proposes methodologies suitable for adult learning. One of the best things done in Spain concerning adult learning is the production of books and materials specifically published to extend practical and theoretical knowledge to adults[3].

e) Supply and specific curricula: The curriculum conception of the reform gives importance to evolutionary stages. In fact, education adapted to evolutionary stages is the first basic goal that is present in the curriculum (MEC 1989b:32). If we must adapt school education to the developmental stages of childhood and youth, adult education should similarly be adapted to the developmental stages of adulthood.

This principle is overrepresented within Chapter III due to specific curriculum proposals (art. 53.2; 52.1), specific centers (art. 53.2 and 54.1) and specialized professors (art. 54.2 and 54.3). In the same way, the search for the specific has guided most of the actions carried on by different governments and social movements during the last few years.

TABLE 15

THE COMPENSATORY CONCEPTION: A MISTAKE WITHIN THE FIRST PROJECT OF THE LOGSE.	*THE NEW CONCEPTION OF AE*
Basic education must be finished at right age, if not it becomes a compensatory need. MEC, 1987: 32.	*Basic education requires adults the present evolution of society.* MEC, 1989a: 193.
. Product of the past. . Component of underdevelopment . The Reform as a solution. . Appropriate age: preadult ages are the best for learning. . Parallelism with the school system.	. Product of the present and future in evolution. . Essential component of development. . Education Reforms produce an unlevelling effect. . Any age is good for learning. . Supply and specific curriculae.

4.3. Adult Education Participation: supply and demand.

Participation in adult education decreases or remains low when people understand adult education to be compensatory. However, if adult education is based upon the skills and competencies people already have, participation increase quickly.

According to the research on Adult Education Participation - coordinated globally by UNESCO and carried on in Spain, Catalonia and Galicia by CREA (1996)- and after a deep qualitative and quantitative work based on gatherings, daily life stories, case studies and a survey -- we have found that people would participate more if they did not assimilate negative images of themselves through different images and social interactions. The images, mostly stereotypes and prejudgments, entirely dominate social life and are one of the most important reasons for adult non-participation.

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[3] Both publishing companies El Roure and Popular have published mostly these materials.

TABLE16

ADULT EDUCATION PARTICIPATION

	SPAIN	CATALONIA	GALICIA
TOTAL	14%	17%	14%

Source: Research on Adult Education Participation in Spain, Catalonia and Galicia (CREA 1996).

Presently, adult participation in courses has risen to 17% in Catalonia, 14% in Galicia and 14% in the whole of Spain. From an ethnocentric point of view, we could say that Catalonia is more developed because of its higher motivation towards education, but that is not the case. Catalonia has a higher standard of life than that of Spain and Galicia. It also has more education and cultural provisions. With respect to gender, there are no significant differences, but it is important to mention the gender differences between participants of the different type of courses in Catalonia; in vocational training there are 61% men and 39% women, in cultural education 43% men and 57% women and the biggest difference is in basic education with 33% men and 67% women.

The highest rate of participation is among adults 16-45 years old, who are able to gain access to dominant positions -- like regular jobs. In Catalonia, adults between 46 to 65 years of age represent 8% of participants, in Galicia 10% and in Spain 8%. Older people's participation in courses is very limited, but heavier with respect to cultural activities. Between the ages of 46-65, the rate of participation rises 53% in popular activities and 36% in trips.

TABLE 17

ADULTS, BY AGE GROUPS, WHO HAVE PARTICIPATED IN ANY COURSE DURING THE LAST TWELVE MONTHS

AGE	SPAIN	CATALONIA	GALICIA
TOTAL	14%	17%	14%
16 to 18	19%	20%	14%
19 to 25	23%	22%	25%
26 to 45	20%	26%	21%
46 to 65	8%	8%	10%
66 or more	2%	5%	0%

Source: Research on Adult Education Participation in Spain, Catalonia and Galicia (CREA 1996).

There is a dominance of urban over rural sites. There is more participation in larger towns than in small villages. For instance, in towns of less than 10.000 inhabitants, there is a 9% participation rate compared with 18% in cities of more than 100.000 inhabitants. This ration repeats itself in Galicia (8% versus 22%).

One of the variables which mostly accounts for these significant differences is the level of schooling, a key factor influencing participation and non-participation.

TABLE18

ADULTS, FOR LEVEL OF SCHOOLING, THAT PARTICIPATE IN ANY COURSE DURING THE LAST TWELVE MONTHS.

	SPAIN	CATALONIA	GALICIA
TOTAL	14%	17%	14%
university level	40%	38%	33%
Postcompulsory education	28%	20%	27%
Second Compulsory Grade	13%	13%	16%
Primary studies	5%	6%	5%

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Source: Research on Adult Education Participation in Spain, Catalonia and Galicia (CREA 1996).

Level of schooling and employment status are conditional factors effecting participation: a) people with primary studies (Catalonia 6%, Galicia and Spain 5%) have lower participation rates than people with a higher level of studies (Catalonia 38%, Galicia 33% and Spain 40%); b) workers (full-time and part-time) participate more (Catalonia 46%, Galicia 56% and Spain 44%) than unemployed persons (Catalonia 26%, Galicia 17% and Spain 12%). The above percentages primarily relate to participation in established courses on computers, languages, as well as professional and university specializations (77% in Spain). This means that educational offers adress a very specific education supply.

5. Learning Environments

5.1. Participation in cultural activities.

The phrase, "learning environments," is meant to signify not only education courses, but also different cultural activities.

TABLE19

PARTICIPATION IN CULTURAL ACITIVTIES

Popular Events	Cinemas	Museums	Sports	Excursions	Theatres	Debates	Ballets
58%	54%	46%	40%	32%	31%	27%	21%

Source: Adult Education Participation and Non participation in Catalonia, 1996.

In Catalonia, the most representative activity is "popular events," with a 58% participation rate. Attendance rates at the cinema follow with 54% participation and visits to museums with 46%.

It is significant that people participate in popular events without consideration of any prejudgements on participant levels of schooling, age or gender.

TABLE20

AGE AS THE REASON FOR NON-PARTICIPATION

YES	NO
28%	72%

Source: Adult Education Participation and Non-participation in Catalonia, 1996.

5.2. Channels of information.

The importance of lifelong learning makes it necessary not only to generate a good offer and supply, but **also to create effective channels of information which allow information access to all social sectors.**

There are currently plenty of centers, schools, associations and other institutions where people can take courses or do cultural activities. Nevertheless, quantitative results obtained through the Adult Education Participation research show that information about these activities was not equally distributed to everyone.

TABLE 21

DID YOU RECEIVE INFORMATION? - LEVEL OF SCHOOLING

PRIMARY STUDIES		SECOND COMPUL. GRADE		POSTCOMPULSORY EDUCATION		UNIVERSITY LEVEL	
YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
33%	67%	53%	46%	65%	35%	63%	37%

Source: Adult Education Participation and Non participation in Catalonia, 1996.

The problem of not receiving information about courses decreases as the level of the person's schooling increases -- 63% of university students compared with 33% of people with primary studies received information about courses.

It is significant to note that although mass media is the most usual channel of information, it is not the best way to disseminate course information; last year, 43% of non-participants received course information through television or radio, but it was not enough to motivate them to participate.

The qualitative results from the research in Catalonia also shows that social interactions are more effective than other channels for involving adults in courses or activities.

6. Lifelong Learning Orientations

In Spain, adults have become aware of the importance of lifelong learning in order to meet the needs of The Information Society.

Present tasks (in the labor market or in everyday communication) are not necessarily more difficult than the traditional ones, but they evolve quicker. We will need a higher capacity to learn in order to assimilate them several times in one's life.

Governmental and nongovernmental agencies must disseminate equally the supply of lifelong learning, efficiently using all the channels of information.

Lifelong learning must reject any conceptions of compensatory education. On the contrary, it must strengthen the ideas presented by the unlevelling effect.

Lifelong learning must be oriented towards the creation of an intersubjective communication where participation comes from developing new offers grounded on people's culture, competencies, needs and motivation. This will promote democratic curriculum developments

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in response to collective and individual needs.

Spain has already started to develop policies towards a lifelong learning orientation.

Presently, there are four autonomies in Spain which have already approved laws in adult education: Andaluca (Junta of Andaluca 1990), Catalonia (Generalitat de Catalonia 1991), Galicia (Xunta de Galicia 1992) and Comunidad Valenciana (Generalitat Valenciana 1995).

After two centuries with no existing laws concerning adult education, four laws have been ratified in just five years. It is a demonstration of the qualitative jump toward lifelong learning within Spain's education system.

The comparative analysis of the laws contribute to the view that, generally speaking, all of them share a common basic structure concerning the ambits and the kind of supply they create. The laws completely overcome the compensatory conception and locate adult education within the whole education system. The specificity of adult education is recognized, with vocational training and social-cultural education being integrated under its educational realm.

TABLE 22

COMMON AND SPECIFIC ASPECTS OF THE LAWS IN ADULT EDUCATION

COMMON ASPECTS		ADULT EDUCATION LAWS	SPECIFIC ASPECTS		
AMBITS	SUPPLY	AUTONOMIES	DEPENDENCE/COORDINATION	PARTICIPATION	OTHERS
Instrumental and basic education. All levels of non-university formal. education. Vocational training. Social-cultural activities.	Specific curriculae. Own methodology based on adults. Specific and ordinary centers. Specialized workers. Rationalization of resources: agreements with different organisms, organizations and companies. Modalities: presential, semipresential, distance, selflearning.	**ANDALUCIA 1990**	.Education and Science Council. .Commission for Adult Education.	Small commissions for Adult Education.	Significance of the region and community development.
		CATALUNYA 1991	.Generalitat. .Interdepartmental commission for Adult Education.[12] .Education council.	Advisor committee of Adult Education.[13]	Permeability between formal and non formal education. Modulate structure and curriculum done by credits.
		GALICIA 1992	.Xunta	Own committee of Adult Education and promotion.	Permeability between formal and non formal education.
		COMUNIDAD VALENCIANA 1995	.Interdepartmental commission.	Committee of Adult Education.	Special education for adults. Stimulate association networks and their financing.

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[12] the Interdepartamental Comission has as main goals: to promote and to coordinate all the activities related to adult education. It consists of all the General Directors within the catalan Government related, in same way, to adult education (department of labor, department of social welfare, department of education, ...).

Besides the laws of adult education, a new kind of education is beginning: Learning Communities are an alternative for both childhood and youth school failure and for students in high risk situations, at the level of preschool, initial and second compulsory education.

After some years of elaboration, debate and development, Learning Communities are currently in an initial phase of experimentation.

The contribution of some American school movements (Block 1996, Comer & Haynes 1992, Levin 1991, Slavin 1992) and, specifically, of the Accelerated schools programme from CERAS (Center of Educational Research at Stanford) managed by Henry Levin, has been important in their elaboration.

The implementation of Learning Communities in Spain imply, among other factors, the involvement of the whole community within the learning process (families, professors, students, school associations,...) -- all of whom design the "school dream" they want. The skills which can free people from social and cultural exclusion are priorities in the curricula.

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[4] The Interdepartamental Comission has as main goals: to promote and to coordinate all the activities related to adult education. It consists of all the General Directors within the catalan Government related, in same way, to adult education (department of labor, department of social welfare, department of education,...).

[5] The Advisor committee of Adult Education has the porpose to mix all social entities related to adult education. It consists of : seven General Directors of the Generalitat related to Adult Education. The Social advisor Presicent of each Catalan University. A representative of the Catalan Association of towns. A representative of the Federation of towns of Catalunya. A representative of entities working in adult education. Two people well known in Adult Education contexts. Two representative of the two more important enterprise associations.

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Chapter 9

STUDY OF THE TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

by Stanislav Hubík

Introduction

The Czech Republic - Area and Climate

The Czech Republic is a landlocked country, lying in the central part of Europe in the middle of the temperate zone of the northern hemisphere. Its area of 78.864 km^2, population of 10.334.013 people, and population density of 131 inhabitants per 1 km^2 rank the country the 21st, 12th and 13th among European countries, respectively. The Czech Republic is bordered by Poland (761,8 km), Germany (810,3 km), Austria (466,3 km) and Slovakia. The length of the administrative border between the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic has so far been 272 km.

The major European watershed passes through the territory of the Czech Republic to separate basins of the North, Baltic and Black Seas. The divide node of the three seas is the mountain *Králickv Snezník* (1.423 meters above sea level). The principal rivers are the *Labe* (370 km) and the *Vltava* (433 km) in Bohemia, the *Morava* (246 km) and the *Dyje* (306 km) in Moravia, and the *Odra* (135 km) and the *Opava* (131 km) in Silesia and northern Moravia.

From the physical geographic point of view, the Czech Republic lies on the borderline of two mountain systems which differ by age, as well as geological and geomorphological evolution. The uplands, *Ceská vysocina*, in the western and middle parts of the Czech Republic were basically created at the end of Palaeozoic era. For the most part it is hilly and of Mesozoic era nature (the mountain ranges *Sumava, Cesky les, Krusná hory, Krkonose, Orlické hory, Jeseníky*). The *Západní Karpaty* mountains, which penetrate into the eastern part of the country owes its current appearance to development dating back to the Tertiary era. A belt of valleys are cradled between the two mountains systems.

The climate of the Czech Republic is affected by mutual penetration and mingling of oceanic and continental effects. The climate is characterized by prevailing western winds, intensive cyclonal activities causing frequent alteration of air masses and comparatively ample precipitation.

The maritime effect is mainly felt in Bohemia, with continental climate effects having a bigger impact on Moravia and Silesia. The climate in the Czech Republic is also influenced to a large extent by altitude and relief.

A total of 52.815 km^2 of the country's whole territory (66,97%) can be found at an altitude of up to 500 m, 25.222 km^2 (31,68%) between 500 to 1.000 m, and only 827 km^2 above 1.000 m. The average altitude of the Czech Republic is 430 m.

The fauna and flora found in the Czech Republic testifies to the mutual penetration of principal directions in which fauna and flora have propagated in Europe. Forests, mostly coniferous, cover 33% of the total area. [1]

The Czech Republic - Population

TAB. 1 - Population by nationality

Nationality	Number	Percentage
Czech	8,363,768	81.2
Slovak	314,877	3.1
Moravian	1,362,313	13.2
Silesian	44,446	0.4
Hungarian	19,932	0.2
Romany	32,903	0.3
Polish	59,383	0.6
German	48,556	0.5
Ruthenian	1,926	0.0
Ukrainian	8,220	0.1
Russian	5,062	0.1
Jewish	218	0.0
Greek	3,379	0.0
Bulgarian	3,487	0.0
Romanian	1,034	0.0
Austrian	413	0.0
Vietnamese	421	0.0
Others	9,860	0.1
Unknown	22,017	0.2
Total	10,302,215	100.0

Source: Population census (as of March 3, 1991). Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic, 1995, p. 412.

The Czech Republic - History

The history of what is now the Czech Republic has largely been that of Bohemia. The earliest known inhabitants of that region were Boii, a Celtic people from whom the name Bohemia is derived. They were followed or displaced by the Germanic Marcomanni in the beginning of the Christian era. Between the 5th and 7th centuries, the Slavs swept over the area. Among them were the Czechs, who by the 9th century had become dominant throughout central Bohemia. Moravia was also settled by successive waves of Celts, Germanic tribes, and Avars before the arrival of Slavic peoples. Slavs who settled in the vicinity of the Morava River took the name Moravians. After long disputes among its neighbours, Moravia was incorporated into Bohemia.

The first Bohemian kingdom developed under the Píemysl rulers of Prague and lasted from 895 until 1306. By 1085, the Píemysl dynasty had built up a patrimony substantial enough to be considered a kingdom by the Holy Roman Emperor. In 1114, the Bohemian king became one of the electors of the empire.

The Píemysl family died out in 1306, and the Bohemian throne passed to the Luxembourgs. Charles IV became king in 1346 and Holy Roman Emperor in 1355. He moved the imperial administration to Prague and ushered in a golden age for Bohemia.

A religious reform movement led by the Czech priest and scholar, Jan Hus, overtook Bohemia in the 15th century. His appeal to the Czech-speaking masses and his alienation of German-speaking Roman Catholics gave his religious movement nationalist overtones, and his Hussite followers fought for political and religious rights within the empire for the next century. The Austrian Habsburgs, who were Roman Catholics, gained the Bohemian crown in 1526, and the Bohemian Protestants' revolt against them (1618) precipitated the Thirty Years' War. The Bohemians were defeated, and in 1627 the Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II instituted severe reprisals against non-Catholics and direct rule by the Habsburgs. Bohemia was reduced to the status of a province within the Austrian Habsburg domain and remained within the Austro-Hungarian Empire until its collapse at the end of World War I. After this time, the independent republic of Czechoslovakia was born (1918) through the union of Bohemia and Moravia with Slovakia. Bohemia and Moravia together composed the western three-fifths of the new state and contained two-thirds of its population.

The history of the Czechs throughout the next 70 years was that of Czechoslovakia. Czechoslovakia came under the domination of the Soviet Union after World War II, and after 1948 it was ruled by a Communist government. After Communist rule collapsed in 1989-90, separatist sentiments emerged among the Slovaks, and in 1992 the Czechs and Slovaks agreed to break up their federated state. On January 1, 1993, the Czechoslovakian Republic was dissolved and replaced by two countries, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, with the region of Moravia remaining in the former. [2]

An important phenomenon of the history of the Czechs is the **relation between education and national consciousness** *(national enlightenment in the 19th century).* Since the second part of the 19th century, increased national efforts, beginning with a focus on language, can be seen in all levels of schools and school facilities. Evidence can be found in the unions *Budec* and *Komensky*, in Czech pedagogical magazines, proceedings of teachers' congresses, and in the production of Czech didactic and methodological literature. The magazine *Òkola* (*School*) was founded in 1852 (later re-named *Skola a zivot - School and Life*), *Beseda ucitelská* (*Teachers' Party*) in 1869, the publication of *Posel z Budce* (*Envoy from Budec*) was renewed in 1870, followed by Lindner's *Paedagogicum*. In 1883, Masek's *Slovansky pedagog* (*Slavonic educationalist*) was published and, in 1880, the *Ucitelské noviny* (*Teachers' Newspaper*) and *Pedagogické rozhledy* (*Pedagogical Views*). Besides national efforts, there were also didactic and methodological efforts evident in the magazines with the goal of achieving a scientific conception of the educational activities of schools.

The teachers' congresses were evidence of a growing teachers' movement in Bohemia and Moravia. In addition to national and Slavonic issues (the congress of Slavonic teachers took place in Vienna in 1872 and in Prague in 1908), the congresses dealt with school policy, the social status of teachers, and the level of their education. Since 1880, the activities of the *Budec* and *Komensky* unions were co-ordinated by the *Central Association of Teachers' Unions in Bohemia*. The *Central Association in Moravia* was established in 1894. The magazine *Cesky ucitel* (Czech teacher) became the organ of teachers' unions in Bohemia, *Komensky* in Moravia. [3]

1. The Transformation of Initial Education

New types of schools - including private ones and new types of educational institutions - have arisen in the process of transformation, and people with an interest in education have literally invented other opportunities. New legislation has enabled the establishment of private and church crèches, primary schools, secondary schools and private nurseries.

The whole system of financing primary and secondary schools has been changed. Although the state still bears the biggest burden of expenses, the schools are heavily financed and sponsored by private persons.

The educational policy of 1992-96 has been carried out following strong liberal and pragmatic principles. In the coming years, important conceptual modifications in terms of social democratic principles are to be expected.

1.1 Pre-School Organization

The institutions of pre-school education were developing in the second half of the 19th century. Even before the 1869 law encouraging the development of preschool facilities, the first Czech nursery school was established at St. Jacob's in Prague. It became a third preschool alternative in addition to kindergartens and asylums.

Pre-school education of children is provided in close cooperation between the family and pre-school establishments. The pre-school facilities include crèches, nursery schools and combinations thereof.

Crèches are educational establishments for children usually up to the age of three, which also render therapeutical, preventive care. They are responsible for the sound physical and mental growth, as well as the harmonious development of children. These establishments are administered by the *Ministry of Health*. Attendance is voluntary between the ages of one and two.

Crèches are the first step on the road of lifelong learning for most children and, of course, a voluntary step for the parents. The development of this type of educational institution began during the first half of the 1980s and continued until 1985, after which development declined. In 22 districts of the Czech Republic there are no crèches. The above pattern of development is illustrated in *TAB. 2*:

TAB. 2 - Crèches 1985-1994

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1994
Crèches (total)	1,794	*1,782*	*1,773*	*1,750*	*1,709*	*1,393*	*253*

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic, 1991, p. 596.
Statistické informace: zdravotnictví roce 1994, 1, Praha (CSU) 1995, pp. 84-5.

In addition, there remained 83 "micro-crèches" for groups of five to ten children in 1990.

The great drop in numbers after 1990 is connected with the social transformation in the Czech Republic. The main problem is one of financing. The other one is the aging[3] of the Czech population. After 1994, we can observe an important decrease of the population - comp. **natural increase** in the following *TAB. 3*:

TAB. 3 - Population: longterm trends, 1970-1994

	Unit	1970	1980	1985	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Mid-year population	1000 persons	9805	10327	10337	10363	10309	10318	10331	10336
Mid-year working age	1000 persons	5611	5835	5810	6029	6049	6114	6181	6243
Life expectancy: males female	years	66.1 73.0	66.8 73.9	67.5 74.2	67.5 76.1	68.2 75.7	68.5 76.1	69.3 76.4	• •
Natural increase per 1000 inhabit.	%	2.5	1.8	0.4	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.3	- 1.0

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic, 1995, p. 26-7

The above data influenced the system of crèches and nursery schools and will soon intervene in the system of primary and secondary schools.

Lack of financing and the aging of the population were both factors in the decrease of crèches from 1.794 in 1985 to 253 in 1994 (i.e. to 14.00%). It is a dramatic change, mainly with regards the labour situation of women/mothers.

Nursery schools are next in the series of educational institutions for children. Their role is to follow up on the education offered in the crèches and in the family by developing the personality of children between the ages of three and six and preparing them for primary school. This type of school may be administered either by the government or by non-governmental institutions, as in the case of private, church and community schools. Attendance is voluntary.

A **combination of crèche and nursery school** can either function as a full-day-care center or as a type of boarding school. In this case, the crèche and the nursery school share a joint administration.

The non-governmental nursery schools and crèches are a relatively new phenomenon in the Czech Republic connected with the constitutional changes in 1989, and following legislative changes during the period 1990-1993.

After the mid-1980s, the total number of **nursery schools** decreased from 7,701 in 1985, to 6,475 in 1995. The total number of classes in these schools also decreased from 16,580 to 14,715, with a parallel decrease in attendance from 432,067 to 333,433, respectively. For more details see *TAB. 4*:

TAB. 4 - Nursery schools, 1985-1995

School year	**Nursery Schools (total)**			**Teachers**
	Schools	**Classes**	**Children**	
1985 / 86	7,501	16,580	432,067	32,855
1990 / 91	7,335	16,198	352,139	32,112
1995 / 96	6,475	14,715	333,433	27,695

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic,1995, p. 472.
Statistické informace: Skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve Skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996, p. 4.

The number of non-governmental nursery schools grew from *zero* in the 1990/91 school year to a total of 16 church nursery schools and 121 private ones in the 1994/95 school year. Approximately 2.12% of all nursery schools are run by non-governmental bodies (0.25% by churches or religious communities) and these schools service approximately 2.12% of all children attending nursery school.

Private nursery schools, like government ones, are subject to supervision by the ministry and can receive financial support from the State and from local communities.

The situation is illustrated in the following table *TAB. 5*:

TAB. 5 - Nursery schools, 1995

1995	communities	%	churches	%	private	%	total
schools	6,322	98	16	0.2	121	1.8	6,475
classes	14,359	96	36	0.2	285	2.0	14,715
children	325,510	98	744	0.2	6,339	2.0	333,433
Note: 36 nursery schools are run by the state.							

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1. díl, Praha (CSU),1996, p. 4.

Crèches and nursery schools are both steps in the traditional Czech educational system, as well as within a system of lifelong learning. In the near future, we can expect further changes connected with the global transformation of Czech society and changes in population characteristics.

1.2 General Organization

The general organization of the system of primary and secondary schools is constituted and regulated by the *Czech National Council Act which Modifies Statute Book Act 29/1984 on the System of Primary and Secondary Schools (School Act)*,enacted on the 1st July, 1990.

The system of primary and secondary schools is composed of

* *primary schools,*
* *apprentice training centres,*
* *secondary apprentice training centres,*
* *grammar schools,*
* *secondary vocational schools* and
* *special schools.*

(Schematic diagram - see *FIG. 1.*)

Primary and secondary schools are established as governmental and non-governmental schools. In the latter case, these are private or church schools. Education in the governmental schools is provided free of charge. The non-governmental schools, which are incorporated into the school system by a decision either of the *Ministry for Education, Youth and Physical Education* or the *Ministry of Health* (in the case of health service schools), are subsidized from the state budget. These subsidies are augmented by resources acquired in the form of school fees from learners, sponsors, etc.

Following is a summary of basic indicators from 1995 (*TAB. 6*):

TAB. 6 - Primary and secondary schools, 1995/6

	Pupils/Students	Teachers
Primary Schools	*993,585*	*63,019*
Grammar Schools	*132,149*	*10,103*
***********	***********	***********
Vocational and secondary vocational schools	*216,688*	*18,468*

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarrizení v CR ve skolním roce, 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) ,1996, pp. 17-18, 21-22

1.3 Primary education

According to the *International Classification of Education (ISCED)*, the Czech *primary school* (*základní skola*) is the equivalent to their classification of a *primary school:* the *ISCED 1* (1st-4th form) and the *lower secondary school, ISCED 2* (5th-9th form).

1.3.1 Development *(historical background)* [4]

The entire education system, including internal regulations and a curriculum, was constituted for the first time in the last third of the 18th century. This was thanks both to state support and to the work of many devoted teachers and scholars. For the first time in the history of our education system, the opportunity was created for all young people to receive basic education with a utilitarian orientation. The *state supervision introduced by Joseph II* also contributed by making regional school commissioners responsible for the standard of education in their region.

On the other hand, general compulsory education remained an ideal which was not fully realised in spite of the fact that *trivial schools* were established in any area with a minimum of 80-100 school-age children. Under Joseph II, sanctions were issued (fines, public works, cancellation of social benefits) against parents who did not regularly send their children to school. In addition, the poor did not have to pay school fees. So while the ideal of general compulsory education was not reached, its foundations were nonetheless laid during this period.

The Czech defeat in the Revolution of 1848 resulted in educational measures which further slowed development. In 1885, a concordat (an agreement between the state and the church) was signed which put the Austrian educational system completely under the control of the church. Church authorities accredited textbooks, made staffing decisions, and restrained the free spirit in the schools through religious ceremonies. Furthermore, a ministerial edict was issued on the unsuitability of realia in a basic school. This curbed the creative initiative of many trivial and main school teachers. School reform essentially came to a halt.

Some years earlier, the 1860 *October Diploma* was issued, abolishing absolutism and restoring the constitution. Considerable political, economical, and cultural activity revived in Bohemia. Czech newspapers and magazines began to be published and club activity developed. The restored club activity led to establishing various teachers' unions called either *Budec* or *Komensky.* They tried to raise the national consciousness of teachers and to improve their pedagogical education. They followed the tradition founded by A.S. Amerling in the 1830s. The *October Diploma* also helped solve the question of Czech language in Czech schools. The 1866 *Provincial Act on Performing Equal Right of Both Provincial Languages in Primary and Secondary Schools* recognized both provincial languages (Czech and German) as being equally valid languages of instruction and ruled that either language could be used as the primary language of instruction in a particular school, while the other would be taught as an optional subject.

The principal solution to the educational problem in Austria, and therefore in Bohemia as well, was found only in the late 1860s. Three factors pressured the government to issue education laws reflecting social needs: the peak of the industrial revolution, the development of natural sciences and technology and a lost war against Italy and Prussia. In addition to the above factors, the weakening of the church further enabled the liberalism of the 1867 Constitution. In January 1868, an imperial law was issued establishing the basic principles governing a mutual relationship between schools and the church. This law passed control and supervision of education over to the state to be managed by state authorities appointed for this purpose. The church was only allowed to control and organize religious instruction. The law introduced non-denominational schools, with the church being granted the liberty to establish private schools for the children of a particular confession.

The *Primary Education Act* regulating primary education in Austria was issued on 14 May 1869. The *Act* was officially called *Act by Which the Rules of Educating in Private Schools Are Established* and resulted in the following actions:

a. introduction of both a primary and a council school (originally only a variety of a primary school)
b. establishment of teaching institutes for the education of primary and council school teachers
c. provision of eight-year compulsory education
d. considerable extension of the curricula
e. mention of the possibility of university education of primary school teachers
f. consideration of forms of further education of teachers
g. provision of rules for the economic and social security of teachers.

In accordance with the *Act*, school and teaching regulations for primary schools were issued in 1870. These regulations established guidelines for children's behavior at school, children's and teachers' duties and a ban on corporal punishment. Furthermore, the organizational statute of teaching institutes was issued in 1874.

The positive results of the above changes in school regulation included the secularization and nationalization of schools. The economic situation influenced by the lost war against Prussia allowed for state management of schools according to their own social needs. Even though the nationalization of schools was not complete (the *Act* still accepted the existence of private educational institutions, especially church ones), the authority of the church in educational matters was severely affected. This allowed for the realization of Theresian trends from 1870 onwards. The prolongation of school attendance was also important, undoubtedly leading to the improvement of general education. The extension of the content of education also contributed to this improvement. Finally, the efforts of patriotic teachers to improve the educational content of provincial trivial schools found their legal expression.

The education of teachers progressed. Former preparation institutes could not sufficiently prepare teachers for their job and were replaced by four-year teaching institutes. The introduction of regular pay for teachers was another sign of progress. Their standing in the society was improved by the fact that they were now paid by a particular authority and were rid of the humiliating practice of collecting money from parents.

Article 42 of the *Act* granted the establishment of educational courses attached to universities and technical colleges. This paragraph was interpreted to mean that at least some primary school teachers could achieve a university education.

The 1869 Act governed the Czech education system in the area which is currently known as the Czech Republic until 1948 (It was amended only once - in 1883). The following scheme of education was thus maintained:

- *obecná skola* - primary school
- *mest'anskí skola* - council school
- *stredni skoly* - secondary schools

Secondary schools regulated by the 1849 reform, *The Outline of Organization of Grammar Schools and Realschules (i.e., technical secondary schools)* only followed this modification after 1867. Even then, the curricula of grammar schools was based on classical languages, with language classes occupying 58.1% of teaching time, arts classes 15.8%, and mathematics and science classes 22.9%. A lower grammar school provided the foundations for a system of general education and a higher grammar school provided deeper and more comprehensive knowledge. As defined by their goals and curricula, the realschules were the opposite of grammar schools. According to their 1851 organizational status, they should have prepared students for technical studies, industry, crafts and trades - thus functioning to a great extent as vocational schools. From 1851-1867, the curricula of the realschules included bookkeeping, civil engineering, trade arithmetic, mechanical engineering and others. They received the stature of a general secondary school only in 1867, with the purpose being that the realschule was to provide general education with regard to mathematics, sciences and living languages, as well as prepare students for further study at technical colleges and colleges of agriculture, mining and forestry. In the course of the 19th century, under the pressure of a developing economy, the grammar school was divided into two types: 1) a classical grammar school including Latin and Greek classes and 2) a "real" grammar school where a living language replaced Greek and where more mathematics classes were included. The first real grammar school in Bohemia was established in Tibor in 1862. Real grammar schools became state institutions according to the Marchet's Reform in 1908. At the same time this reform established another sort of general secondary school - reform real grammar school. The lower level of the reform real grammar school corresponded essentially to a realschule with a preference for modern foreign languages.

In the late 19th century, the first girls' secondary schools were established in Bohemia and Moravia. In addition, grammar schools for girls 6-7 years of age and lyceums were gradually established, becoming a special part of the educational system. The girls who passed through girls' grammar schools were gradually allowed to study at universities (at the faculty of arts since 1897, and at the medical faculty since 1900).

In reaction to the needs of developing industry and agriculture, various sorts of vocational schools (agriculture, trade, craft and technology, agronomy, commercial and technical schools) were developed in the second half of the 19th century and early 20th century. They were supported by industrial firms and companies, as well as receiving foundation support. These schools were established outside the formal system but with a connection to the existing system of general education. The length of school attendance was 1-4 years. They usually followed council or lower secondary schools. Some of them achieved the level of secondary schools.

1.3.2 Primary schools (system)

The nine years of primary school (*základní skola*) are compulsory for all children over the age of six and prepares pupils for further study or practice. Beginning in the 5th form, the curricula is differentiated to reflect their interests and capabilities. After completing the 5th form, pupils can start the first four forms of an eight year grammar school.

All these basic formulations are covered by the *Czech National Council Act which Modifies Statute Book Act 29/1984 on the System of Primary and Secondary Schools (School Act)* issued on July 1st, 1990. This act was accepted after principal changes in the *Constitutional Order of the Czech Republic*. On December 16, 1992, *The Document of Essential Rights and Liberties* was included in the *Constitutional Order of the Czech Republic* by resolution of the *Czech National Council*. Thus, art. 33 of this document and other relevant articles have become parts of the Czech Republic's legal system and have been central in the educational legislation and policy framework. Thanks to this change, the private and church primary/secondary schools have been constituted and competition of ideas and values in the classroom is - after 50 years - a reality.

The importance of this change will be more clear when one compares the new constitutional order with basic articles concerning culture and education in an old, socialist constitution. We can read in the former document, e.g. in article 16: "All cultural policy in the Czechoslovakia, educational development and the school system is realized in accordance with the scientific world outlook, marxism-leninism and in close connection with the work and life of the people." [5]

In comparison with older *School Acts* (1948, 1984), the *School Act* of 1990 provides a clear definititon of the Czech *school system* (art. 2) and divides schools into three basic categories - the *state schools*, the *schools of churches and religious communities* and the *private schools* (art. 57a).

Five years of implementing the above mentioned *Act* changed the structure of the primary schools from a monolithic to a pluralistic form in the year 1995:

TAB. 7 - State, church and private primary schools, 1995/6

	State	Church	Private	Total
Schools	4,1557	16	39	4,212
Classes	44,552	96	180	44,828
Pupils	989,243	1,889	2,453	993,585
Teachers	62,544	168	307	63,019

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996, p. 6, 10.

After 1989, a move towards a more scientifically-oriented, world outlook reformed teaching objectives in primary and secondary schools. This involved a revision of the mathematics syllabus as well as the development of new manuals and textbooks of social sciences and humanities - starting with history and civic education. The relatively new subject of environmental education was also realized, not only on a theoretical basis, but also involving observations of the local area. Environmental education is supported by Czech and European *grant agencies* .

Rather than strict instruction concerning reading books after the 1st form, there is a competition of authors and approaches. The *Ministry of Education* only recommends some of the textbooks. Two general projects for the reconstruction of teaching in primary school were founded in the Czech Republic - *Základní skola* (*Primary School*) and *Obcanská skola* (*Civil School*). The process of transformation on the primary school level is also one of the basic topics in programmes of teacher's retraining.

In comparison with other school systems in Europe, the primary schools in the Czech Republic have a lower number of teaching hours (1 teaching hour = 60 min). For example, pupils in the 8th form of primary school attend 868 hours in the Czech Republic. In comparison, students in the Netherlands attend 1.197 hours of school, in Switzerland 1.108 hours, in Belgium 1.090 hours and in Sweden 932 hours.

An important phenomenon in the Czech Republic are classes or schools for gifted children. In some cases, there is a working cooperation between such a class/school on the primary level with a similar one on the secondary level school (gymnasium *etc.*).

1.4 Secondary Education

The system of secondary schools is a part of the *system of primary and secondary schools* as defined by the *Czech National Council Act which Modifies Statute Book Act 29/1984 on the System of Primary and Secondary Schools (School Act)* of 1990, July 1.

Students who complete primary school education are allowed to enrol in the **secondary schools** (*strední skoly*). The secondary schools are split into:

secondary apprentice training centres,
grammar schools and
secondary vocational schools, the latter which provides *secondary* vocational education, *full secondary* vocational education or *upper secondary* vocational education.

Depending on the type of school, the schools provide secondary vocational education or general education with specialized training, culminating with exit examinations at secondary apprentice training centres or secondary vocational schools. Upper secondary education includes general education, specialized vocational training and training in arts or teaching and is completed by passing final examinations.

According to the *International Classification of Education (ISCED*, the Czech *secondary school* (strední skola) is equivalent to *upper secondary school - ISCED 3*. The lower level covers the age group from 10 to 15 years and the upper level from 16 to 19 years.

1.4.1 Secondary Apprentice Training

The secondary apprentice training centre (*strední odborné uciliste*) prepares its student for trades. The study is terminated by final examinations. The centre also prepares some of its students for some highly skilled trades or technical administrative activities which are operational in nature; this type of education is terminated by passing exit examinations.

Secondary apprentice training centres are an organic part of the education system in the Czech Republic. They continue in a long tradition of apprentice education (see *Development*) and offer students a good chance to obtain skills and needed education either through fulltime study or adult education.

Development *(historical background)* [6]

The beginning of apprentice education in the Czech Republic may be found in the education system within the framework of the Central European guilds in the first half of the 13th century. Every guild based its education and its fundamental structure of *apprentice-journeyman-master* on regulations contained in the guild statutes. These regulations applied to the numbers of apprentices to be trained in a certain trade, the apprentice period, etc. The education and instruction was, for the most part, individual and started with simple and physically exacting work.

The actual contents of the education and instruction were not limited by any regulations and depended on the discretion of the master. This situation existed until the 18th century. In the 18th century there appeared trends towards unification in the production process and these trends were mirrored in the education of future workers. First attempts at unification of the fundamental features of apprentice education were contained in the *General Guild Articles of the Royal Towns in Bohemia*, issued by Emperor Charles VI in **1739**. For the first time the *apprenticeship period* was codified to last from two to four years. Another important step followed in 1774 with the *legalization of elementary education for all* young people in trivium schools and the continuation of this education in Sunday schools for apprentices.

Unfortunately, the limits of the guild system hindered the new system of production and this situation led to the abolishment of the guild system in 1859 when innovations in apprentice education were introduced. The most important one was the introduction of a *contractual relationship* available to the apprentices. However, no central decision was made concerning the contents of apprentice education and these regulations did not affect the individual apprentice education with small tradesman.

In the 1870's, the conception of what was known as *occupational schools* assumed a more clear-cut shape. This was also the *period in which we must seek the beginnings of the first system of apprentice education*. In addition to occupational schools, the lowest level of this system also included *lower vocational schools* with a curricula focused on the free trades (such as the textile industry, glass and pottery manufacture). These two lines of apprentice education came to play a more important role only later.

Despite all reform efforts aimed at more general apprentice education (and vocational education as a whole), and firmer union between the theoretical and practical part of apprentice education, **the period from the 1880s until after World War II was characterized by the individual education of apprentices and by a system of youth education lacking a uniform charac-**

ter. Transformation of the field of apprentice education was only achieved between the years 1946-1949.

In the years 1946-9, apprentice education was extended to cover all sectors of the nationalized, key industries of the Czechoslovak economy. A new apprenticeship period was introduced, lasting two or three years. Technical schools, which ensured vocational training on the level of passed apprenticeship, were changed into three-year vocational elementary schools and the education of apprentices was gradually transferred to nationalized enterprises. In 1946, educational or training centres began to be located in these enterprises and a process of *training-instruction-education* was realized. The collective system of apprentice education assumed more importance and much more attention was given to its pedagogical elements. This was also the beginning of the *unified system of technical schools*, the attendance of which was compulsory for all youth up to the age of 18 who did not attend other schools.

According to the *Unified School System Act* of **1948**, the technical schools were included in the schools of the upper secondary school. Efforts were made in these schools to abolish cyclic education. Centres of working youth were established which combined the apprentice workshop with technical school, and housed students in an apprentice boarding hostel. This process culminated in the year 1950, with the issue of the *Act on Working Youth*. This act established a single centre for the management of vocational youth education - the *Centre of Working Youth*. A year later the apprenticeship period was reduced again (most of the apprentice lines had apprenticeship periods of two years or less) and apprentice lines were more specialised.

The *Centre of Working Youth* was abolished in 1951 and the education of youth for the trades was further divided into three organization forms, *none* of which were part of the school system. Instead, the education of apprentices was transferred to the administrative offices of the respective ministries and central authorities - thereby decentralizing its administration. This situation continued after the 1954 reform, which created apprentice schools in place of vocational schools and centres of working youth.

This system, however, was not effective enough and proved to be expensive for the training institutions. It was, therefore, abolished in 1957 and replaced in 1958 by a new, *unified system*, that remained in existence until the 1980s. The reforms set into motion by the *Apprentice law* of **1958** continued to develop until 1951. Of great importance was the inclusion, once again, of apprentice education in the school system and its administration by the *Ministry of Education*. The complex educational procedure, *training -instruction - education* , was favoured in training institutions attached to larger enterprises. Where this was not possible, apprentice centres were established. Theoretical education, on the other hand, took place in apprentice schools, administered by the *Regional National Committees*.

Taking into account the legal status of youth educated for their future vocations, the *Apprentice law* delivered the *concrete responsibility for education and instruction to the enterprises*.

While secondary apprentice training centres became an organic part of the primary and secondary school system according the *School Act* of July 1, 1990, this does not mean that the system was unified in the sense of its pre-1989 conception.

The basic form of study in secondary apprentice centre is fulltime study (almost 185 thousand students), followed by adult study (almost 17 thousand).

TAB. 8 - Secondary apprentice training centres: fulltime study, 1995/6

	With Special Curriculum	2 years training	3-4 years training	4-5 years training	Higher	Total
Schools	*	*	*	*	*	*
Classes	158	65	5,848	883	793	7,747
Pupils	2,609	1,067	139,706	21,148	20,068	184,598

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996, p. 57.

The above table shows that a larger number of students attend secondary schools (including vocational ones) than attend secondary apprentice training centres: secondary apprentice training centres account for about 36% of students, secondary schools about 66%.

There is a conflict between an increase of actual expenses, on the one hand, and a decrease of employees (teachers, instructors etc.). See *TAB. 10*:

TAB. 10 - Expenses and employees in apprentice education, 1994-1996

Indicator	1994	1995	1996	index 95/94	index 96/95
Expenses (mil. Kc.)	7447.0	8046.2	8194.1	108.0	101.8
Employees (total)	32,318	31,917	30,481	98.7	95.5

Source: Tondlová, K., Dve tváre ucnovského skolství. **Skolství**, n. 19, 3.5.1996, p. 7

1.4.2 Secondary schools *(system)*

The grammar school (*gymnasium*) is a general educational establishment which prepares its students for study at institutions of higher learning, as well as for performing some activities in the domain of state administration, culture, etc. The grammar school generally administers the 4th-8th forms, but in some cases, an eight-year grammar school has been developed including the primary school forms (1st-4th). In this case, students entering the 1st form of this eight-year programme have completed the 5th form of primary school. On the other hand, those students enroled in the four-year grammar school, enrol after completion of the 9th form of primary school. Study at the grammar school ends with a final examination.

The actual situation is manifested by the following *TAB. 11*:

TAB. 11 - State, church and private grammar schools - full time study, 1995/6

	State	Church	Private	Total
Schools	302	14	65	361
Classes	3,977	169	526	4,672
Students	117,025	4,760	10,364	132,149
Teachers	8,648	390	1,065	10,103

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996, pp. 17, 20.

TAB. 12 - State, church and private grammar schools - adult study, 1995/6

Schools	Classes	Students (total)	Students 1st form
29	48	944	252

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996, p. 19.

The secondary vocational school (*strední odborná skola*) prepares its students for technical economic, economic, educational, health care, socio-legal, administrative, artistic and cultural activities, as well as for study at the institutions of higher learning. As a rule, the study at secondary vocational school takes four years. A specific type of secondary vocational school is the conservatoire, where singing, music, dancing and drama are studied. The conservatoire also prepares its students for study at institutions of higher learning. It usually has six forms and is completed by final examinations.

The actual situation is demonstrated by the following *TAB. 13*:

TAB. 13 - State, church and private secondary vocational schools, 1995/6

		Technical	Business	Health	Agriculture
Schools	18	171	193	85	59
Classes	208	2 143	2 037	913	490
Students	5,496	63,977	57,004	22,547	13,269
Teachers	522	5,257	4,366	2,183	1,364

TAB. 13 - Cont.

	Forestry Teacher training	Librarian	Conservatoires	Household economy	Other Schools
Schools	5	2	19	108	172
Classes	46	26	170	615	1 386
Students	1,163	732	3,303	15,800	33,397
Teachers	104	46	931	1,454	2,231

TAB. 13 - Cont.

	Total
Schools	832
Classes	6,304
Students	216,688
Teachers	18,468

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996, pp. 24-51.

There are very few church and private secondary vocational schools - only 27 church schools and 286 private ones in the Czech educational system:

TAB. 14 - State, church and private secondary vocational schools - full time study, 1995/6

	State	Church	Private	Total
Schools	519	27	286	832
Classes	4,098	107	2 099	6 304
Students	182,872	2,094	31,722	216,688
Teachers	14,922	215	3,331	18,468

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996, pp. 17, 20.

Special schools (*zvláštní skoly*) educate pupils/students who are mentally, physically or sensorially handicapped, students with speech impediments, students with behavioral problems, who are ill or otherwise afflicted. These schools are placed within health establishments (hospitals, therapeutical institutions, convalescents homes, etc.). Special nurseries, primary and secondary schools (such as grammar schools, secondary vocational schools, secondary apprentice training centres) can all be placed within these special schools.

It might be useful to compare the position of church and private schools with the position of state schools within the period 1990-1995:

TAB: 15 - State, church and private primary and secondary schools in the Czech Republic, 1990-1995 fulltime study

Type	State		Church		Private		Total 100%
***	total	%l	total	%	total	%	
Schools	4978	91.7	57	1.1	390	7.2	5425
Classes	52627	94.3	372	0.7	2805	5.0	55804
Pupils	1289140	96.0	8743	0.7	44539	3.3	1342422
Teachers	86114	94.0	773	0.8	4703	5.2	91590

1.5 Teaching Methods, Further Training of Teachers, Teachers

1.5.1 Teaching Methods

A redefinition of educational and pedagogical responsibilities within the schools was one of the primary tasks after the political changes in 1989-90, as well as **revisions of curricula** in accordance with changes in the *Constitution* and in Czech social life. Firstly, the content and length of study of *history* and the *humanities* were revised, and new subjects were introduced - like *environmental education* and *education for citizenship*. Teachers were made central to the decision-making process, including being given the responsibility for the selection of textbooks or manuals. This "freedom of teaching" creates too large a framework for curricula preparation and there is no clear limit between the useful competition of ideas/values/methods and the limits of teacher authority. It is, however, clear that this situation is only transitory.

1.5.2 Further Training of Teachers

The absence of any **compulsory/obligatory** further training of teachers is also typical of this transitory period. After forty years of very strict "further training" in the art of ideological "painting," teachers' suspicion of compulsory continuing education of teachers and of retraining is understandable. Hopefully this is a transitory attitude. In the meantime, a very important and needed part of continuing education of teachers is **voluntary** retraining and **voluntary** courses of further education. The education is provided by private educational agencies and *NGOs*, on the one hand, and by the network of official institutions. A typical example of the latter is the *Centre for further education of teachers* (*Centrum pro dalsí vzdélávání ucitelu*) which arose during the process of transformation. Good examples of the former include the *Jan Amos Komenskv Academy* (*Akademie J.A. Komenského*), the *Christian Academy* (*Krestanská akademie*) or the *Masaryk Worker's Academy* (*Masarykova delnická akademie*). Teacher training is arranged by the school and depends on the relative autonomy of the school. But due to the fundamental social/societal changes in the Czech Republic the teacher is faced with new pedagogical tasks and from this follows new individual demands on further training and retraining (see *App. 31*).

As an example we can take a programme brochure of the *Centre for further education of teachers* of *Masaryk University* in Brno. The *centre*, a product of transformation, offers 159 courses for the year 1996. The whole system of further training and retraining is divided into 11 thematic groups:

1. school management (9 courses),
2. social sciences (16 courses),
3. natural sciences (49),
4. special pedagogy (5),
5. foreign languages and literature (21),
6. personal computer (33),
7. aesthetic education (11),
8. economy (4),
9. law (4),
10. physical education (6) and
11. education in traffic rules (1). [8]

These activities are certificated by the *Ministry of Education* according to the 1996 *Ministry of Education Instructions for the Certification of Educational Establishments in the System of Further Education for pedagogic workers* (n. 10713/96-20).

1.5.3 Teachers

Teaching staff is ageing and qualification levels are decreasing during the ongoing period of transformation. According to information from *Trade Unions (Education)*, more than 29% of teachers (about 18,000) are above 50 years old and around 6.3% (4,000) are pensioners.

Positive changes are, however, observable in the social *role* of the *teacher*: an extension of "school autonomy" also means the autonomy of teachers' didactic and methodological approaches and a relatively new and important feature of teaching/learning has to do with teachers'/pupils' personalities. These changes have resulted in a move towards a *dialogical/communicative* approach to teaching.

Another typical sign of social transformation is a loss of quality caused by the increase of under-qualified individuals among teachers of primary schools. Primary schools with under-qualified staff total more than 50% (mainly in the country) of all primary schools in the Czech Republic - the total number is several hundreds of under-qualified teachers. This can be contrasted with the number of *teacher-training* graduates - 3349 in the school year 1993/4 and 3809 in 1994/5 (*APP. 26*). The majority of these new teachers will never teach.

1.6 Foreign Nationals/Minorities

In 1991, there were 531,688 citizens (5.2% of the population) who declared themselves as being of other nationalities than Czech, Moravian or Silesian (i.e. historical majority of society). The largest groups were Slovakians (3%), Polish (0.6%) and Germans (0.5%) - comp. *TAB. 1* of *Introduction.*

The percentage of children attending primary groups with regards these three nationalities totaled: 0,7% Slovakian pupils, 0.3% Polish pupils and 0.07% German pupils.

The educational policy of the Czech Republic respects this situation. If we compare, e.g., primary schools by teaching language, we get the following picture: there were a total of 4,142 schools in the Czech Republic (1992/3), including 4,112 schools with Czech as the teaching language, 29 schools with Polish as the teaching language and one school with Slovakian as the teaching language (there is a close similarity between Czech and Slovakian language and that is why many Slovakian people do not need to learn in their native language). In the school year 1992/3 there were 2,989 Polish speaking pupils in the schools and 120 Slovakian speaking pupils. Ongoing tendencies are expressed by *TAB. 16*:

TAB. 16 - Primary schools by teaching language, 1990/1-1992/3

Indicator	**School year**		
	1990/91	**1991/92**	**1993/94**
Schools in total	3961	4065	4142
Teaching language			
Czech	3931	4035	4112
Polish	28	29	29
Slovak	2	1	1
Classes in total	47020	48061	47904
Teaching language			
Czech	46841	47896	47739
Polish	151	157	157
Slovak	28	8	8
Pupils in total	1194695	1166489	1115027
Teaching language			
Czech	1190880	1163480	1111918
Polish	3231	3137	2989
Slovak	584	146	120

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic, 1995, p. 302. For further details see *APP.9.*

An important minority in the Czech Republic are *Romanies* (*Romové*) or *gypsies* (=older expression). The Romany population represents - in a certain sense - a marginalized social group with special cultural and civic needs and demands. As a result of the state educational policy, special *pre-school* establishments for children of the *Romany* minority emerged (in Olomouc - as part of a longterm project - winner of *Award of Hannah Arendt* this year), and thanks to grant projects, special *classes* in primary schools were established (in Prague) and a *private school* (in Ostrava) started its educational activities.

A *Museum for Romany Culture* (*Museum romské kultury*) in Brno covered not only monitoring and research activities in this filed but also *educational* activities: "Contact with the public are maintained by means of a series of lectures, *Who are Romanies?* - last year's lectures were devoted to the present life and culture of Romanies, their language and literature" [9]. Other smaller projects were realized in the educational sphere on local and regional levels.

1.7 Parallel Institutions and Educational Activities

An important part of the lifelong learning system on the levels of primary and secondary schools is represented by a network of *Primary Schools of the Arts*, various *organizations* (*NGO*s) for children and youth like *Pionyr*, *Skaut-Junák*, *Sokol* etc., and various *institutions* like *Houses for children and youth*, *Centers for leisure* or children's levels of *social movements* like *Children of the Earth* (*Deti Zeme*) etc. These institutions, organizations and activities are out-of-school activities with various means of funding, including partial funding from municipalities and from the State.

Changes:

new legislative environment *
new socio-economical environment *
church and private primary/secondary schools *
competition of ideas and methods *
underqualified teachers *
lack of control in some areas *

2. The Transformation of Tertiary Education

Institutions of higher learning are all university level. The term "university" is reserved only for institutions with programmes in the humanities. The essential change in the university field happened in 1882. The *Act* of 2nd February, 1882 divided the Charles-Ferdinand University in two - Czech and German. In the school year 1882/3 only two faculties were opened - the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Law. A year later the Faculty of Medicine and Theological Faculty were instituted. The Czech university became the centre of development of Czech culture and science.

2.1 Institutional types *(system)*, Organization

The higher education system in the Czech Republic is regulated by the *Czech National Council Act on High Schools (May 18, 1990)*. The *Act* is an essential document defining and regulating the system of high schools in the Czech Republic in connection with principal changes in the *Constitution*.

The higher education system in the Czech Republic is composed of three types of institutions:

- ***universities*** (universities with ***humanities*** programmes),
- *technical* universities, *agricultural* universities),
- *high schools* (*economic* high schools), and
- *academies* (academies of *arts*).

Every institution of higher learning is composed of *faculties*, and the faculties are composed of *departments, institutes* or *schools*. There are 23 institutions of higher learning in the Czech Republic, i.e. 106 faculties with 129.453 students (fulltime study = 118 759, adult study = 10 694). Of the economically active Czech population (Czech nationals), 2,14% were studying on the university level in the school year 1994/5.

The Czech higher education system is oriented (like German or Austrian ones) toward the concept of the *fulltime student*. Lectures take place approximately 8 months of the year and the basic units are two *semesters* ("winter" and "summer"). The remaining four months are free from teaching and are used to evaluate received material and to prepare for examinations (normally in January-February and June-September). Most courses at universities are planned to last 4-5 years (*medicine* 6 years).

In comparison with the primary/secondary school system, the higher education system has a relatively higher degree of autonomy: curricula, organization of courses and matters of teaching staff are based on the principle of *academic freedom*.

Apart from the public sector of higher education referred to here, there are *no private or church high schools* (in the sense mentioned above - i.e. on the university level) in the Czech Republic. According to paragraphs of the new version of the *High Schools Act* (presently in preparation), the possibility for establishing private high schools will probably be legalized.

Nevertheless, there is a strong tendency to accept higher levels of (post)secondary schools (*Fachhochschulen*) as a part of tertiary education, i.e. as a part of the higher education system: This tendency is evident, for example, in the strategies of *TEMPUS-PHARE* projects.

Other institutional types of higher learning are connected with adult study or distance learning (see relevant parts of this chapter).

Another important point co-creating the process of transformation in the Czech higher education system is represented by an *intensive process of innovations*, on the institutional, as well as on the content level. This process is strongly supported by the *Ministry of Education* and by various *NGOs*. An international (*EU*) governmental base for such support is represented by the *PHARE programme*, especially by its programme *TEMPUS*. Similar programmes have beem initiated by the two greatest foundations (*NGOs*) oriented towards the transformation of universities in the Czech Republic - *Jan Hus Educational Foundation* and *Open Society Institute*.

The *Jan Hus Educational Foundation* created a longterm programme of *Support for Higher Education* and prepared a plan for the first three years (1993-95). According to the analysis of the foundation, "in the first year we were working on 44 projects, in the second we found ourselves involved in 66 and by the third year already one hundred. In the course of the programme`s three years we worked with 15 Czech and Slovakian universities and 24 other educational institutions. The foreign partners, for our home departments, institutes and schools were colleagues from 92 (!) universities and institutions in Europe and North America. Through our work, the Czech and Slovakian universities have been able to introduce 64 innovatory courses into their curriculum, whilst we have also contributed to the further education of teachers and to postgraduate training ... We have also organised and supported 19 projects in the field of civic and democratic education for adults. (..). The result of our efforts has been the publication of 42 books, 34 university texts, 11 collections of conference papers and the support for five specialist journals." [10]

The *Open Society Institute* also prepared a longterm programme - *Higher Education Support Program* (*HESP*). This programme was established in 1991 and "promotes the advancement of higher education in the fields of humanities and social sciences throughout Central and Eastern Europe (...) This is achieved through programmes designed to assist the institutions and scholars of the region to integrate more fully into the international academic community. (...) Focus is placed on curriculum reform and faculty development. (...) These programs divide into four broad categories." [11]

These examples are the best samples of the international support of *NGOs* in the Czech Republic.

2.2 Distance Learning

The process of establishing a distance education network in the Czech Republic is regulated by the project *Multi-Country Cooperation in Distance Education*. The project covers 11 countries of central and eastern Europe (the Czech Republic including). The first step of the cooperation was the creation of a *steering committee* and the second was the creation of *national contact points*. In the first phase of the project's realization, promotional activities and awareness raising will be developed and supported; in a further phase, the "training of trainers" and the development of "European studies" will be realized. Main thematic areas of distance education will have to be developed: ***analysis of market needs, development of programmes of European studies, development of modules in subjects relevant to the country, study of advanced technologies*** and ***development links with EU policies in the area.***

In the near future, four study centres will have to be established and in a framework of their activites the following thematic areas will be supported: *set up of a transnational network of distance education study centres, human resources development, provision of basic equipment for interactive distance learning, selected literature and documentation, establishment of electronic links between centres* and *provision of literature and documentation.* [12]

The first initiatives in the sphere of distance education came "from below," from universities where the distance education centres were established in the last four years: in Brno (*Technical University*), in Olomouc (*Palacky University*), in Liberec (*Technical High School*) and in Plzen (*West-Bohemian University*). [13] In this connection, distance education is explained as a quite "new opportunity" for adult education and university education [14], but until now the main offering of these centres consists of short-term courses and (in some case) of studies at the lower high school level (bachelor level). What is important was the constituting of *The Czech Association of University Distance Education* three years ago. Massive and successful support from the French side (Centre de Lille - CNED) must be mentioned here.

The first step on the way to building a roof for distance education in the national framework was the establishment of *The National Centre of Distance Education* in the Czech Republic (in Prague). *The National Centre of Distance Education* (*Národní centrum distancního vzdelávání - NCDV)* was established by the *Ministry of Education, Youth and Physical Education* edict of November 1, 1995 as a part of *The Centre for Study of High Schools (Centrum pro studium vysokého skolství* (in Prague). The *centre* is a unit for information, coordination and representation and at the same time the contact point of the *PHARE* programme for distance education. The *NCDV* will have to found an administrative database of study programmes and curricula (in the form of distance learning), a database of educational institutions, *etc*.

A very important role which will be obtained by the *centre* in the near future is as a collaborator of *The Accrediting Commission* and as the administrator for evaluating institutions using distance education. Further tasks of the *NCDV* will be to organize a network of distance education centres in the Czech Republic and to communicate with regional units of this educational system. [15]

An important event was also the establishment of the Czech point of *The Open University* (Milton Keynes) in 1993 by means of *Nadace Open University* and with the help of an older (1991) Slovakian point of *The Open University* in Bratislava (Slovakia). At present this distance education institution has two faculties in the Czech republic and about 500 students. The problems with which *OU* are confronted are mainly those connected with acceptance of the *MBA* degree in the Czech Republic. It is a quite different situation in comparison with Western Europe where the *OU* is a highly prestigious institution. Perhaps after amending the *High School Act* a possibility to establish non-governmental universities (or faculties) will emerge.

2.3 Access

Citizens who have completed their full secondary education or full secondary vocational education and have gained the necessary qualifications to study further can apply for admission to **institutions of higher learning** (except for arts where the requirement for the completion of full secondary vocational education does not have to be met, if the applicant is exceptionally gifted). The applicant becomes an undergraduate at such an institution (university, college, etc.) on the day of his/her enrolment. The study is terminated by passing the state examination which in some branches of study can also include writing and defending a dissertation (thesis).

There are currently restrictions throughout the Czech Republic on admission to courses of higher education in all subjects because of the large number of applicants and insufficient capacity. Places in such courses are allocated through a selection procedure in the hands of the faculty.

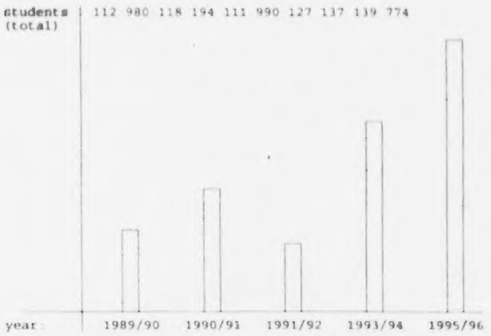
As a restrictive move which is at variance with the *Constitution*, is a (successful) attempt to introduce fees for admission to the secondary school level programmes (*Fachhochschulen*) in school year 1995/6 and to the high school (university) level programmes in the near future.

2.4 Quantitative Development: Extension and Differentiation

The student population throughout the Czech Republic has risen to almost 140,000 (as of October 31, 1995), including over 120,000 students of Czech nationality (fulltime study).

The number of high schools has remained relatively constant over the past 25 years (23) but the number of faculties have increased: from 68 in the school year 1980/1 to 110 in 1995/6. The steady increase in the number of faculties and of (fulltime) students started in the school year 1990/1 and again in 1993/4 - as *FIG. 1* demonstrates (see also *APP. 5* and *APP. 24*).

Fig. 1:



There are two or three points of intense increase in the number of students in terms of longterm development: in the school years 1990/91, 1993/4 and again in 1995/6.

An explanation of this phenomenon is twofold, including a *political* one (changes in 1989/90) and a *social* one. The latter is more relevant.

One of the strong motives to study at university is to postpone an encounter with practical life and with possible social problems (unemployment etc.). Thus, the higher learning system is in this connection something like a branch of social services.

2.5 Student Enrolment

TAB. 17 - Student enrolment in the higher education system by type, as of October 31, 1995

*	Institutions of Higher Learning			
Indicator	**Humanities and economics**	**Techno-logy**	**Agricul-ture**	**Arts**
Students, total,	*65252*	*44256*	*8288*	*1978*
including females	*46976*	*11577*	*3403*	*963*
fulltime study				
Czech nationals,	*73147*	*40892*	*7630*	*1791*
including females	*40017*	*10664*	*3144*	*845*
Other nationals	*749*	*117*	*28*	*62*
Adult study	*9974*	*2837*	*553*	*65*
Students - total:	**139774**			

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 2, Praha (CSU) 1996, p. 3.

2.6 Equality of Opportunities

There is no important difference between the proportion of working-class children enroled in universities and the proportion of children from other social groups studying at universities. The same can be said (relatively) about the percentage of women students. But this situation is changing now as a result of the transformation process in Czech society after 1989/90: the process of transformation also "produces" relatively new poor social groups as social differentiation (unknown in "real socialism") goes on. However, at present, equality of opportunities has a character of "over-equality" as the following example illustrates.

A new phenomenon in the field of university education is "double" study. It is a form of study in which the student who is completing his/her study at one faculty either:

a) applies for a place to study within another subject at the same faculty, and after finishing the first subject keeps on studying within the newly chosen course, or
b) sits for an entrance examination for another faculty, and being accepted, after graduating from the first faculty he/she keeps on studying at the other faculty.

This phenomenon does not always represent efforts to obtain more qualifications. In this way, students often delay the moment when they should get their first job and the possible disappointment over an inadequate post. All expenses of this "double" study or other study are covered by the state, which gives rise to new economical, social and moral problems. On the one hand, the student already studying at one university gets another state appropriation at the expense of other potential students (the case of "double" study), and on the other hand, the student who has already graduated draws means at the expense of another student whose place he/she holds. The students in the Czech Republic usually graduate at the age of 23, but they can legally take advantage of all the social benefits of a dependent (a children's allowance, reduced taxes of the parents, reduced taxes of the students having a part-time job, and other students' advantages such as discounts, etc.) during regular study up to the age of 26. This state is based on and guaranteed by the constitutional order of the Czech Republic. As I have already mentioned there are good points and bad points to this phenomenon.

The noticeable participation of older people at universities is also a relatively new phenomenon. There was a preference before 1990 for the regular university study of young people between 18-26. Nowadays we encounter applicants for studying at universities who are 35 and older and often have already graduated from another university. There are good and bad points to this phenomenon, too.

2.7 Financial Assistance

Like in other countries (Germany, e.g.), a student's living expenses are primarily the responsibility of the parents. There are only two other possibilities for financial assistance: scholarships (grants) or loans. The former possibility is based on the condition of being in good standing (rating), and not on the social position of student.

2.8 Regional Opportunities

The past six years have been a period of growth for higher learning. In the period 1990-1995, *forty- one new faculties* were established (total in 1989 was 69 - in 1996,110).

Since 1989/90, four universities and a number of faculties, departments and courses (and their combinations) have been established in three regions of the Czech Republic: *Ostravská univerzita* (*Ostrava University* in Ostrava) and *Slezská universita* (*Silesian University* in Opava) in North Moravia, *Západoceská universita* (*West Bohemian University* in Plzen) and *Jihoceská universita* (*South Bohemian University* in Ceské Budejovice) in Bohemia. These are border regions with traditional industrial (Ostrava) or cultural (Bohemian universities) centres and there is a good chance for close regional cooperation with German universities (new Bohemian universities) and with Polish universities (new Moravian universities).

2.9 Organization of Studies and Teaching

In comparison with other countries, the Czech system of studies may be characterized by the following structural features:

- students *specialize* in one subject or a combination of subjects;
- university education combines professional qualification with academic qualifications;
- all students are, for the most part, *fulltime students* - there are official courses offered for adult students, but this form of study is connected only with some faculties and courses;
- students obtain the *first degree* (*bakalár - bachelor*) after three or four years of studying (it depends on faculty);
- the *second* and *final degree* (*magister - masters*) are obtained after a further two or three years (only medical faculties have six year programmes with one final degree);
- graduated (*magisters*) students can go on in the form of doctoral studies or *postgradual studies* (*doktorandské* or *postgraduální studium*), 3-7 years (it depends on faculty);
- the most important form of *instruction* is the *lecture*, other ones are *seminars*, *practical work* and *laboratory work*: the content of the lectures is a systematic overview of disciplines or subjects, with other forms of instruction leading students to write, to reason and to discuss concrete scientific and practical problems;
- at some universities/faculties (not generally) students have a large amount of *freedom in selection* of courses (so called credit system);
- students have *free choice* of classes and specialization during studying of a discipline;
- there are also many *new forms of learning* - like practical courses, an active participation in research projects, etc.;
- everywhere there are *introductory classes/seminars* which help students/beginners adapt to the different atmosphere of the high school (different from secondary school atmosphere).

2.10 Funding and Future Perspectives

According to the *State budget expenditure (by economic destination)*, the public consumption of education (schools) was **37,408 million** Czech crowns in 1993 and **38,769 million** Czech crowns in 1994 (respectively 10,0% and 10,2% of the total expenditure).

Education in the Czech Republic is free of charge. The turning point was the year 1996: thanks to a government decree, student fees are an organic part of upper secondary schools (*vyssí odborné skoly - Fachhochschulen*) financing. In their last *Government Programme Declaration* after the general election in June 1996, the political parties have also signaled their agreement to small student fees (about 4,000 - 5,000 Czech crowns *per annum*) in higher learning. The political parties of opposition have signaled their rejection of this idea by stressing the text of the *Constitution*.

Expected changes will include a rise in enrolments, the continuing aging of teaching staff, the structuring of the applicants according to social position/status, perhaps some limitation of the so called new universities/faculties and, very important, a greater identification with *EU* teaching and study standards.

Changes:

new legislative environment
new socio-economical environment
speed increase of faculties
autonomy of faculties
speed increase of students
decrease of professors/readers
competition of ideas and methods
absence of distance education
lack of adult study opportunities
pragmatizing of study programmes

In spite of the large proportion of students in schools with programmes in the *humanities*, there is a strong feeling of *pragmatizing* high school learning and the feeling of moral disfunction within faculties. That is why the *deans' conference* in July 1996 expressed the need to appoint new persons for the *Ministry of Education*, within Youth and Physical Education, and among those involved in education in the humanities - people with energy and force to stop the ongoing process of mercantilization and pragmatizing of the higher learning system.

3. The Transformation of Adult Education and Training

3.1 Development *(historical background)*

The significant landmark in constituting an institutional basis for adult education in Bohemia was in the 1860s, with the approval of the so called *Association Bill*, the possibility of establishing nationality and the emergence of educational and other societies and associations. This process culminated for the first time in the 1890s when educational institutions for adults were founded: the *Worker's Academy* (*Delnická akademie*) in 1896 and the *Central Workers'School* (*Ustrední skola delnická*) as a center of national workers' clubs and unions in 1898.

Initiated by the *National Czech Council*, and approved by political parties of that time, the *League of Popular Cultural Activities* (*Svaz osvetovy*) was established in 1906 as a "non-political organization in which members of all parties striving for progress and the people's well-being, could work properly side-by-side for the benefit of the Czech people." Beginning in 1908, this league struggled to legalize popular libraries in the Czech Lands. However, this did not happen until the Republic of Czechoslovakia was declared. That same year, the *Czech Popular Cultural Activities* (*Ceská osveta*) magazine was founded.

Hence, it may be stated that the *activities of the nationality and workers' associations were bearers of adult education development* in Bohemia before *World War I* and during the period of struggle for a new independent Czechoslovakian State. [16]

After the birth of Czechoslovakia, in October 1918, three *popular education bills* forming the basis for legislative amendments of adult education were passed over the next two years: the *Act of Organizing Popular Courses of Civic Education* of February 7, 1919 (No. 67 of the *Code - O organizaci lidovych kurzu obcanskí vychovy*), the *Act of Public Libraries* of July 22, 1919 (No. 430 of the *Code O verejnych knihovnách*) and the *Act of Community Books of Memoirs* of January 30, 1920 (No. 80 of the *Code - O pametních knihách obecních*). Resting on these three legislative pillars, *popular education* had been the most widespread way of realizing adult education until the Nazi invasion in March 1939.

Popular education was even introduced in the army (as early as 1918) and by 1926 there were about 270 military seclusions in the army. Popular education activities were coordinated by the *District Corps of popular Cultural Activities* (*Okresní osvetové sbory*). In 1919, there were a total of 230 district corps in the Czech Lands. In 1926, there were 569 within the territory of the Czechoslovakian Republic, with 9000 local *committees* (*komise*).

The legislative basis of popular education was liberal with a considerable role adjudged to the state. In the preamble to the 76/1919 bill we can read: "The state itself is obliged - as one of its foremost and noblest tasks - to assume superintendence over the political education of all citizens. ... The state will accomplish this education both at schools and especially through popular education." In this respect, the 530/1919 bill was of principal significance. It imposed upon "every municipality to establish and maintain a public library."

In 1925, the *League of Popular Cultural Activities* was changed into the *Masaryk Institute of Popular Education*, and thus mass popular education acquired a high quality centre.

The legislative process was continued. The *Ministry of Education and National Popular Cultural Activities Decree* of November 10, 1923 (*Vynos ministerstva skolství a národní osvety*) - supplemented with a decree in 1932 - amended possibilities for free educational courses and popular education congresses (held in 1928 and 1938). These two possibilities contributed to a better interpretation of basic legislative texts, as well as to their better implementation. The whole process of building and developing the *system of popular education as an important part of lifelong learning* was interrupted by the occupation of Czechoslovakia and *World War II*.

After 1945, the strategy of popular education and other adult education provisions proceeded from the *Kosice Governmental Programme*. On October 26, 1945 *Edict No. 130 of State Care of Popular Cultural Activities* (No. 130/1945 of the *Code - Dekret c. 130 o státní osvetové peci*) was adopted. This document determined the role of *Boards within popular cultural activities* (*osvetové rady*) in the educational system and created a basis for establishing the *State Boards of Popular Education* within the *Ministry of Education and Popular Cultural Activities*. Based on the above *Edict*, important *provisional instructions and information for popular cultural activities inspectors and library inspectors* were issued by the *Ministry of Education and popular Cultural Activities (Decree No. B-161659-IV*, November 28, 1945). The *Czech Popular Cultural Activities* magazine (*Ceská osveta*) resumed publication in 1946, while other work in this area of education was specified by the *Circulars of the Country's Popular Cultural Education Board* - controlling, for example, the relationship between the *people's schools of popular cultural activities and trade union schools of work*.

An event of principal significance involved the establishment of a university program for *popular education workers* at *Charles University* in the school year 1947/8.

In February 1948, political power in the country was taken over by the *Communist Party*, and in May, 1948 a new *Constitution* was adopted which meant a basis for additional modification of legislation.

That same year, in August 1948, the third *popular education congress* took place, defining the main objectives and methods of a new, communist strategy in the field of popular education and adult education. To a great extent, the whole sphere was linked to the leading ideology, and gradually (but rapidly) the old contents of the popular education actions were removed. The ruling party placed a great emphasis on this area of education. This is evidenced by the budgets intended for the sphere of popular cultural activities: in 1949; the budget for popular cultural activities was something over 500 million crowns and in 1950 it reached about 786 million crowns. (By comparison, in 1919, the state budget expenditures on popular cultural activities were 418 thousand crowns; in 1920, 2,704.088 crowns; in 1921, 3,874.868 crowns; in 1922, 5,149.296 crowns; and after 1923, after reaching the record sum of 6,747.153 crowns, the budget dropped down to 5,308.767 crowns in 1924, and continued to do so in the following years.)

The *Ministry of Information Decree No. 136564/48-VII* considerably modified the operation of people's schools of popular cultural activities. *The Organizational and Curriculum Regulations for Public Schools of Popular Cultural Activities* were issued and their organizational structure was altered. These schools were divided into three levels: *school of popular cultural activities (SPCA)*, *higher SPCA* and *people's academy of popular cultural activities*. In the first half of the 1950s, due to a decision by the *Ministry of Education and Popular Cultural Activities*, 2.200 *SPCAs* were established.

In June 1952, the *Czechoslovak Society for the Dissemination of Political and Scientific Knowledge* was founded as a new methodological and organizational center of adult education outside schools and outside the framework of trade union and party training. The need to provide education for new, politically desired personnel in different leading positions (*nomenclature*) resulted in the founding of the *SPCA for workers* (*Osvetové skoly pro pracující*) - see the *Ministry of Culture Decree No. 172/54*, June 1, 1954. Thus, a very dense network of continuing adult education was completed, supplementing the similarly dense network of trade union training and training within the *Communist Party*. Through this, not only was real continuing education assured, but so was the exercise of a permanent ideological influence on adult citizens. In practice, each citizen was (or *was to be*) incorporated into some form of continuing education (popular cultural activities, trade union, or party), gradually beginning to be understood as a process of lifelong learning. [17]

The major impulses for current general changes in Czech society, and for education in particular, stem from the political changes in 1989 and from the consequent profound rearrangements in all areas of Czech social life. Special note should be given to the break-up of Czechoslovakia - generating two independent states, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic - which has further accelerated and intensified the economic and political transformation already in progress. First of all, the old constitution (*The Czechoslovak Socialist Republic Constitution*) has been amended. After the country split up, a number of new bills and legislative decrees were approved following the adoption of the new *Czech Republic Constitution*. This process continues. Every year the Czech Parliament passes dozens of new bills, most of which are fundamental and lead to further social change.

The first constitution valid on the territory of the present-day Czech Republic [18] was considerable in scope and included guarantees for the freedom of education. During the era of socialist Czechoslovakia, the constitutions shaped the educational process through ideological principles - the so called *scientific world outlook* - and through the leading role of the communist party in all areas of social life, including education. The ideological and political influence of the communist party was substantial, even though it was often mediated in a complicated way, e.g., through the trade union movement and its organizations. Therefore, the first constitutional steps implemented after November 1989 involved the abolition of those articles of the old constitution referring to ideological indoctrination and cultural and educational supervision by the party.

In compliance with all the essential UN documents of human rights and liberties, both *The Czech and Slovak Federative Republic Constitution* of 1990 and *The Czech Republic Constitution* of 1993 have provided the guarantee of free education, thus taking up the initiatives of progressive pre-war constitutions documents. [19]

3.2 Responsibility for Adult Education

Before 1990, there was a constitutionally and legislatively (and even politically) codified *system of unitary education* in the Czech Socialist Republic, the ideological roots of which can be traced back to the 1940s. At present, as a result of legislative and economic changes, the old system is being transformed with a different speed and intensity, depending on the diverse social and geographic areas.

The unitary (highly centralized) legislative regulation of the whole system has been abolished and only school education is consistently legally regulated. Development of private primary and secondary schools has been made possible.

Out-of-school education has been passed into the hands of local authorities, private agencies and companies. Educational agencies and companies function both on a narrow vocational or regional level and on a general, nationwide level.

There is no fundamental principle of continuing or adult education in the Czech Republic, no special *Act* - there is only *The Further Education Bill* being discussed within the office of the *Legislative Council of Government* (of 1994).

That is why the responsibility (also in legal sense) for all forms of out-of-school adult education is in the hands of participants, employees, trade unions and various other groups. The legal basis for the responsibility consists of the *schools acts* and the general codes from: **The Work Statute Book, The Business Book** and from *The Constitution*). From these follows two types of institutions which are constituted according to these three types of acts: government and non-governmental. The non-governmental institutions are assigned (and typologized) by *The Business Statute Book* (limited companies, etc.) and as of 1995, also by *The Act on General Welfare Companies* (so called "non-profit organizations Act").

The areas of responsibility, as well as the types of institutions are closely connected with this triangle of acts - the *school acts*, *The Work Statute Book* and *The Business Statute Book*. From this follows several types of control: direct and immediate (schools - ministry), indirect and mediated (through non-educational institutions) and limited (lack of professional control in the sense of education).

In the opinon of Z. Palán's (Director of the *Adult education division, Ministry of Education*)[20] - not only a good legislative base, but a legislative base comparable with member states of the *EU* is needed in the Czech Republic.

3.3 Institutions

The institutional structure of adult education in the Czech Republic is relatively new and changing. Some of the adult education institutions are part of secondary schools, of secondary apprentice training centres and of universities/faculties - other institutions have created a varied structure.

This structure is determinated by a legislative basis - as mentioned above. Some educational institutions are established in accordance with the *school acts*, other ones in accordance with *The Business Statute Book*. Later, they are divided again with *institutions accredited or non-accredited* by governmental offices.

The most important adult education institutions are:

* **Company-based institutions** which are built up as special internal training centres; these institutions are growing very slowly, there is rather a tendency to send workers or management staff out to, mostly private, education institutions.

* **Commercial institutions**, the number of which have grown considerably since 1991 (2,700 in 1994 and 2,200 in 1995); these institutions target individuals and companies which can pay, particularly in the areas of foreign languages and new skills; the most important institution with a nationwide network of education centres is *The Jan Amos Komenskv Academy (Comenius Academy)* - see *APP. 29*.

The Jan Amos Komenskv Academy (JAKA) has, first and foremost, been one of the institutions with a long tradition operating in the area of adult education in the territory of the Czech Republic. It was developed in 1990 and in a certain way (especially in terms of organization and personnel) has followed up the work of a previous institution called *The CSSR Socialist Academy*, founded in 1952 (then called *The Czechoslovak Society for the Dissemination of Political and Scientific Knowledge* - the name was changed to the *Socialist Academy* in 1965). At that point it claimed a relationship to the Marxist oriented *Socialist Academy* established as early as 1936. The objective and mission of *The CSSR Socialist Academy* was, first and foremost, "to spread and adopt knowledge from the area of politics, science, culture and technology and its application in practice." To a great extent the character of the organization was ideological, but nevertheless, their activities in non-ideological spheres (science, technology, art, etc.) represented a considerable contribution to adult population education. In 1995, *JAKA* had almost 70 district agencies. (Some of them are privatized.) The biggest interest was noted in lectures and courses pertaining to the area of foreign *languages*.

There is an idea to connect the *AJAK* network with goals and projects of the *National Centre of Distance Education (NCDV)* and to therefore cover the territory of the Czech Republic with distance learning establishments and activities.

* **Trade unions institutions**, which rest on the tradition of worker's education (see *Development* in this chapter.); Nowadays, the trade unions are undergoing crucial changes, and for the time being, educational strategy in the unions exists only in the form of principles and suggestions. It involves, however, all the trade union bodies and all types of education within them. The basic conception is to comply with a requirement to provide refresher courses for union workers of all levels and to train union officials in order to complete their knowledge in the areas where it seems necessary. There are differences between particular unions. A good representative of the situation is *The Kovo Trade Union* which draws up its educational policy with the help of a considerable institutional basis.

* **Chambers institituions**, which have an obligation to realize professional further education - like the cham-

bers appointed by the *Czech National Council Act of the Czech Medical Chamber, the Czech Stomatological Chamber and the Czech Apothecary's Chamber (1991, May 8*, n. *220*).

* **Institutions of distance education**, which emerged during the last four years (see relevant part of the chap. 2).

* **State and local authorities**, like *culture centres, centres for leisure* or *houses for children and youth* (see relevant part below concerning culture centres).

* **Religious institutions** of non-Catholic and Catholic churches - e.g., the *Christian Academy*; Churches have their own network of education centres, academies and high schools (faculties) with their special educational programmes and projects.

* **Educational institutions** of the **various sectors of economy**, which rest on the tradition of "sector education," characterized by an educational network with one central institution in the sector.

* **Other NGOs**, like *Pionyr* (transformed organization of children and youth), *Junák* (an organization of children and youth), *Sokol* (an organization for sports and physical education) and more than 500 civic associations.

* An important role is played by various **social movements** with stable institutional bases, like the ecological movement with its own educational institutions and network *Brontosaurus Movement, Deti zeme* (*Children of the Earth*), *Poslední generace* (*The Last Generation*) and *Duha* (*Rainbow*). Due to effective cooperation, the educational dimension of their activities are very good, as well as their institutional base: *EkoCentrum* (*Center of Environmental Information*), *Environmental Education Houses, Houses of Environmental Conservation* etc., are examples of such.

* The **media**, especially radio and television; An important change in Czech cultural life was the establishment of *private* radio and television broadcasting in 1994. As demonstrated below (*TAB. 18* and *TAB. 19*), a portion of the broadcasting hours are delimited for *educational programmes*. Despite the importance and impact of this specific educational activity, we can observe here a decline (similar tendencies are present with regards public libraries). However, in 1995 and 1996 we can observe something like a "turning point" with an increasing share of educational programmes in radio/TV broadcasting;

TAB. 18 - Radio broadcasting, 1990-1994, (broadcasting hours)

*	*				1994	
Indicator	**1990**	**1991**	**1992**	**1993**	**State-owned**	**Private**
Radio broadcasting totall	396604	37977	35822	49198	54640	323786
Education Programmes (%)	—	2.1	2.6	2.7	1.5	1.6

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic, 1995, p. 495.

Television is a very important instrument of adult education and within the lifelong learning process: A research project realized with the help of *UIE* in the framework of *ALPHA 96 - Literacy and Work* in the Czech Republic was meant to prove highly effective at connecting alternative ways of production and reproduction of literacy and literacy strategies based on *bricolage*, with **mass-media moderation** respecting and methodically using *bricolage*. The subject of this research was the mass-media complex of the *Receptár* (*The Book of Prescriptions*) institutions, which especially enabled the exchange of alternative approaches toward solving various problems - e.g., *adult learning*. The practical results of the television programming of *Receptár on* adult learning processes are extraordinary and worthy of attention from people dealing with lifelong learning problems. [21]

There is no contact between television and any education institution at the formal or conceptional level (as in Spain or France at the level of distance learning, e.g.). There is only *ad hoc* contact in the case of some special programmes.

Ongoing possible impacts of television on lifelong learning processes are illustrated by *TAB. 19:*

TAB. 19 - Television broadcasting, 1994 (broadcasting hours)

Indicator	**CT 1**	**CT 2**	**NOVA TV**	**Premiéra TV**
TV Broadcasting total	8760	6576	6382	6150
Education programmes (%)	402	392	—	196

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic, 1995, p. 495.

* **Museums, galleries, public observatories, planetariums and zoo gardens**, i.e. institutions which also realize exhibitions, lectures etc. - see *APP. 28*.

The important educational establishments in the Czech Republic were **culture centers** and *Clubs of popular cultural activities*. By 1990, the important organizational and methodological basis for further adult education in Czechoslovakia was represented by a network of *cultural centres* and *clubs of popular cultural activities*. Their structures were related to the administrative division of the country: before 1993, Czechoslovakia was divided into 10 regions, 112 districts, and had over 9.000 municipal units. Each region had its own *regional cultural centre* which directed methodologically particular *district cultural centres*. Other cultural centres operated in capital cities of both republics of the federative state - in Prague and in Bratislava. Apart from that, in every bigger municipal unit, *the club of popular cultural activities* functioned, members of which worked on a voluntary basis. The activities of the cultural centres were closely related to *The CSSR Socialist Academy*, and to other cultural institutions - theaters, trade union clubs, libraries. Before 1990, Czechoslovakia had the most developed network of theaters in the world, and owing to the *Masaryk Act of Libraries* (*Act of Public Municipal Libraries of July 22, 1919*) the **most developed network of libraries in the world** (the act ordered the establishment of a public library in every municipal unit). This very dense network of cultural institutions, subsidized by the state, municipalities, trade unions and co-operative farms, represented an extraordinarily effective body of institutions dealing with adult education - as well as, undoubtedly, influencing the adult population both ideologically and politically. After 1990, this network was partially transferred into the form of private cultural and educational agencies, has partially lost its former state support and has partially ceased to exist. Generally speaking - **this network of culture centres is transformed** into new forms of activities and into new institutional structures.

In total, the network of cultural centres, clubs of popular cultural activities, and the *CSSR Socialist Academy* (excluding analogical institutions - e.g., several thousands of cultural centres in trade unions and co-operative farms) comprised approximately 250 institutions operating on a professional level, and several thousands of institutions functioning on a voluntary level. All the professional institutions were systematically engaged in adult education and lifelong learning.

Although this area has changed to a significant degree we can observe its revival and stabilization based on the new economic and social platform. The tradition in the Czech Republic is very strong in this respect.

Basic structural and organizational units of these *regional* and *local* cultural/educational practices consist of local *culture centres*, local *NGO*s (eg. *Sokol* or *JAKA* etc.) and local (regional) culture institutions (like *galleries, museums*, etc.). There are three specialised research institutions in the Czech Republic (covered by the *Ministry of Culture*) which are monitoring this overall base for various educational activities: *CIK* (*Centrum informací o kulture - Centre for culture information*), *REGIS* (*utvar pro místní a regionální kulturu - division for local and regional culture*) and *ARTAMA* (*utvar pro neprofesinální umení a estetickou vychovu - division for non-professional arts and aesthetic education*). Results of their research and monitoring are presented in the periodical *Místní kultura* (*Local Culture*). To obtain a good picture of the educational activities, institutions and networks in the field of adult education means observing what happens in this sphere of local/regional cultural practices: this sphere is already an extremely important area for adult education from the *national enlightenment period* (19th century) as a real, vital and living fundament of mass education.

In the Czech Republic, as in Germany for example, continuing education as a part of the adult education system and as a part of a lifelong learning system can be divided into the *closed* part of the system and the *open* part of the system - see *Fig. 2*:

System of continuing education as a part of lifelong learning system (closed and open continuing education)

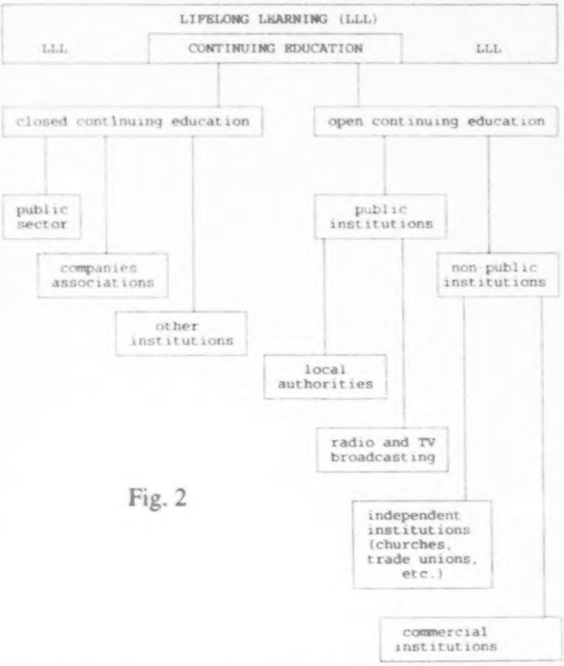


Fig. 2

3.4 Continuing vocational training and retraining

Adult study is a constitutive part not only of the Czech Republic's education system, but also of continuing vocational training. The first and best prepared form of adult study is adult study at secondary schools/apprentice training centres and at the institutions of higher learning. The proportion of students in these establishments are almost coincident as shown in the following *TAB. 20*:

TAB. 20 - Secondary education: adult study, 1995/6

*	Schools	Classes	Students (total)	Students 1st form
Grammar schools	198	622	16552	9824
Secondary apprentice training c.	199	612	13221	6700
Secondary vocational schools	29	48	944	252

Source: Statistické informace: skoly a skolská zarízení v CR ve skolním roce 1995/96, 1, Praha (CSU) 1996.

Another new form is continuing *training and retraining* in various non-governmental institutions. In continuing vocational training courses, people require a *primary* vocational qualification (the unskilled) or *additional* vocational qualifications. In retraining they obtain a *new* qualification for new or further employment.

Continuing vocational training is addressed to employed people and covered by themselves or their employers. Retraining is addressed to the *unemployed* and to those *threatened by unemployment.*

The active employment policy based on legislation of the Czech Republic passed in 1991 and 1992, provides a considerable incentive for the educating of adults. It offers (through the *Public Employment Service* Offices) the opportunity to take re-qualification courses for both the unemployed and candidates for a different sort of job.

Public Employment Service Offices organize retraining courses in cases where the demand structure does not correspond to the supply structure in the labour market and retraining provides for new or further employment in a suitable profession.

Retraining [22] takes place on the basis of a written contract between the *PES* Office and a job seeker which specifies the conditions under which retraining is done (see *Decree 21/1991 as amended by Decree 324/1992*).

The *PES* Office pays the the course fees in full, and depending on its resources, may also contribute to the job seeker's other expenses (catering, accomodation, travel expenses). During the retraining course, the job seeker's unemployment benefit increase to 70% of his/her average net monthly earnings (decisive income for calculation of the unemployment benefit).

Two types of retraining courses are generally organized: specific, for specific professions with employer's promise of employment, and non-specific, without any promise of employment, where the attendee of the course is trained to acquire skills which increase his/her chances in the labour market.

Almost 66 thousand persons attended retraining courses in 1991-1995.

In an endeavour to achieve high efficiency, financial support particularly targeted retraining courses, resulting in their high effectiveness (70%).

Retraining as a form/part of a lifelong learning process is at the same time one of the *active employment policy instruments*. Development in 1990 is demonstrated by *FIG. 4*.

The *Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs* does not cover the whole area of retraining - part of it is also covered by the *Ministry of Culture* due to a *grant project* system directed towards various thematic groups. In 1995, this *Ministry* advertised a contest directed towards four **educational** thematic groups. One of them was directed toward theme "actvities for unemployed and for risk-groups of the population" (see note n. 24). The other part of retraining is realized by *NGOs*, like *JAKA*, or by organizations such as *trade unions*.

The dynamism of social change in the Czech Republic is remarkable. Its speed is also reflected in the legislative process.

It may be presumed that the adoption of the *Civil Service Act* - so far only existing in the form of proposed and discussed principles - will intervene in the process and system of adult education. In particular, principles No.101 and 102, generally entitled *Care of State Employees‘ Qualification*, cover - in terms of legislation - a considerable number of state service employees.

The proposed law forces service offices "to assure continuous improvement of state employees` qualifications", and states that "results of state employees' qualification improvements are incorporated in the service assessment" (principle 101). In this way, it regulates in a significant way the general statements of *the Work Code*, describing an *employee`s obligation* to "improve systematically one's qualification for performance of the work specified in the employment contract" (art. 141), and the *employer`s option* "to make possible for an employee to improve one`s qualification" (art. 143) based on the contract. Apart from this, the statement formulated in principle 102 - "Conditions of state employees` qualification improvement are determined by a special law" - should be considered important. If the requirement of principle 22 involving a qualification exam, necessary for performing state service, is added to the above facts, it becomes apparent that - after being finished and passed by the Parliament - the state service law will influence the political environment of adult education and lifelong learning to a great degree.

3.5 Provision

The question of provisions is closely related with the above mentioned (*3.2*) *legislative basis* of educational institutions. The possibility to establish institutions purely on a simple business basis (without any control from the side of the government education unit) opens the door for any thinkable activity in the process of education.

Perhaps the most important question concerning provision in this connection is whether it leads to a new or *upper qualification with certificate*. There are uncertificated and certificated courses of continuing education: first of all *further education* courses and *retraining*. Among various types of further education, which are mostly in the hands of private agencies, the most popular are *foreign language learning* and *vocational learning*. The latter plays a significant role - younger persons of lower management staff are obviously studying *management, new technologies* and *communications* within the framework of short-term courses. One of the most popular among Czech young people is the study of (at high school or in any form of further education) *personal management* and *MBA* courses.

There are Czech certificates (obtained in Czech educational institutions with Czech know-how and Czech teaching staff), "joint" certificates (obtained in a Czech institution with foreign know-how and staff) and foreign (*EU*, e.g.) certificates (everything from abroad - such as the *Cambridge Certificate*, e.g.). This is one cut.

Another cut may be a legislative one: these three types of the certificates are attainable from institutions constituted in accordance with some of the school acts or according to *The Business Statute Book*: the latter case being a twofold one - with *institutions accredited or non-accredited* (by *Ministry of Education, Youth and Physical Education*). The level of education in some of them is at least questionable.

An important document regulating activities in this area is the 1996 *Ministry of Education Instructions for the Certification of Educational Establishments in the System of Further Education for Pedagogic workers* (n. 10713/96-20), which regulates the institutional basis for the further education of teachers.

With such a wide structure of institutions and educational levels, institutions are often grouped according to their similarities. Similar forms of provision are *short courses* (of one-two hours per week outside working hours), *seminars* (of several days, mainly weekends), *one-two week intensive courses* and *longterm courses* (six months). There are no fast criteria defining the forms of provision-type of institutions, but the general custom is to offer shorter courses in private agencies (languages, skills) and longer ones in companies (for their own staff).

New steps on the path of adult education and lifelong learning *in the Czech Republic* could be the *new and first* **journal,** *Adult Education*. It is prepared by the *Ministry* (*Adult Education Division*) and by an association of adult educators. The first number of this journal (four numbers *per* year, *A4* format, 30 pages) will appear on the 1st January, 1997 [23].

3.6 Staffing and Funding

There are no regularly published statistics on how many persons are employed in adult education institutions. According to a summary of the *Ministry of Education, Youth and Physical Education* (division for adult education) the number of *accredited* commercial institutions is fluctuating from 2.200 to 2.700. But this number represents only a small portion of educational non-governmental educational institutions.

There are two basic types of staffing: fulltime and part-time. The former is prevailing in the field of company-based adult education/training and among the planners and organizers, as well as in state institutions (like high schools). The latter one is typical for small companies and, primarily, for those commercial institutions engaged only in education: staff is part-time for teaching. In every case, however, fulltime administrative staff is typical.

Institutions covered by the *Ministry of Education* (*National Centre for Distance Learning*, distance education centres on the university level, e.g.) have fulltime professional staff.

* * *

In accordance with the institutional structure of adult education in the Czech Republic, funding depends on various sources:

- the state (*ministries* and *grant* agencies, European including),
- the private economy (company-based education/training),
- sponsoring bodies (there is a large net of funds in the CR)
- private individuals.

During the last five years, a new system of funding emerged in the sphere covered by the state. Examples include the new *Act* on non-profit organizations (September 1995), as well as the system of *grant agencies* (*Grant Agency of the Government of the Czech Republic, Grant Agency of the Academy of Sciencies, grant agencies* of the *Ministry of Education* and *Ministry of Culture)* and other agencies - for instance, municipal ones.

An important way of funding adult education on the *local* and *regional* level is a grant system of the *Ministry of Culture*. For example, in 1995 this *Ministry* advertised a contest directed toward four **educational** thematic groups:

1. development of educational activities of children, youth and adults,
2. development of methods and forms of education,
3. **problematics of lifelong learning,**
4. education and non-artistic activities ... (...),
5. activities for unemployed and for risk-groups of the population. [24]

In addition to these types of projects, the *Ministry* also advertised another contest directed to **the non-professional arts** directed as follows:

1. traditional Czech music,
2. literary branch, dramatic creativity, workshops and seminars, including,
3. non-professional creating of the arts, photography, audio-, *amateur* movies and video,
4. all sorts of dancing ... (...), and
5. child aesthetic activities with a stress on the preparation and education of the leaders of child/youth collectives. [25]

Another source of support is offered by *NGOs*. An example is the *Grant Programme for Adults (Project for realizing of social and culture activities)* of the *Open Society Fund*. This grant programme is specified for "all projects for any activity of a cultural or educational ... character" [26], primarily on the local and regional level.

Changes:

(too) liberal legislative environment
new socio-economic environment (funding)
boom of private education establishments
transformation of adult education system
transformation of adult education networks
lack of control
cooperation with EU partners

4. Lifelong Learning Policies

Transition or progress towards a system of lifelong learning is now a reality in the Czech Republic. Partly, it is a follow-up on the results of earlier activities, and partly the creation of a completely new strategy. In almost all areas, either elements of a lifelong system or self-contained parts of this system exist.

In the near future, the educational system will become the backbone of lifelong learning. A network of elementary artistic schools and educational agencies offering other forms of education, represents a parallel to initial education (public, religious or private primary and secondary schools) which could be considered as an independent school system. This complex arrangement - the school system and its parallel - can be considered a typical, already considerably developed, (so far the most developed), part of the lifelong learning system. The parallel educational institutions of this type, however, are not a part of tertiary education. At this level, they are only starting to be introduced.

Analysis of the present liberal governmental attitude toward adult education, analysis of the legislative environment, and evaluation of the economic environment leads to the conclusion that the government is not henceforth responsible for the adult education system and, consequently, neither for the lifelong learning system in general.

The present liberal attitude toward non-government initiatives in the area of education is leaving lifelong learning (especially adult education) without qualitative regulation. This attitude is also creating a dependency of access to education on individual economic conditions. Liberalization of the educational institutions and methods is definitely positive, but a specific lifelong learning strategy (which would, for example, set the priorities legislatively outlining the quality of education etc.) is still missing. At present, mercantilization of the lifelong learning system, especially in the area of adult education, prevails.

The legislative modification of the lifelong learning system appears to be desirable and needed. Because the legislation of a *Further Education Act* is not available, *The Work Statute Book* and *The Business Statute Book* are the basic legislative regulators of all further education and lifelong learning and because of this, education finds itself on the level of common goods. Relative to this, another undesirable fact is that, at present, a system for further education of teachers is missing. In large organizations (banks, industrial enterprises), the organic parts of the lifelong learning system developed into a very rational and effective form. Here the situation is often the same as in EU countries.

It is also desirable to create a relationship between the lifelong learning system and the ongoing tax system, so that together with the new legislative arrangements, a new mechanism of strategic support for lifelong learning in the government and non-governmental sphere can be established.

In larger centres, implementation of senior education as a part of lifelong learning is more successful. For the time being it is underway as a part of university education and has the character of amateur courses or courses for adults. It would be desirable if the government would step into this area through non-university institutions (while taking into consideration seniors' financial status). It is my opinion that lifelong learning should be partly fulfilling a social work function, especially for senior citizens.

The most significant control unit for creating and developing the lifelong learning system in the Czech Republic is the *Ministry of Education, Youth and Physical training*. Based on this fact, it is apparently possible to substitute the terms "*school* education" and "education" and this substitution is permanently in progress. I consider it to be a strategic task to overcome the traditional way of equivocating the terms "education", "school" and "school education" , which, in the Czech Republic, represents a very strong tendency. This is preventing a development of strategically competitive (that means outside of school), non-traditional, and "heretic" educational systems, which go beyond regulation by top government institutions.

Implementation of international lifelong learning development projects in the Czech Republic imports a number of elements which are not compatible with the Czech reality. On the contrary, a very few formal structures, which have existed here and which are only starting to be built in western Europe, are being used (probably for ideological reasons): such as regional institutions (cultural centres, libraries, *JAKA* etc.) or amateur clubs. This is not only slowing down the progress of development but also makes it more expensive.

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Development of the lifelong learning system at the present time is characterised to a great extent by the substitution of education and know-how (eventually skills). Although this fact relates to the already above mentioned liberalization of education, it is necessary to decide to what extent these two things should be separated from the system and also from the methodological point of view.

NOTES

[1] **Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic**, Prague (CSU) 1995.

[2] **Encyclopedia Britannica** (Czech Republic).

[3] "The Czech republic started aging in the 1950s when the proportion of the population 65 and over was higher than the limit of 8% regarded as aging. However, due to the baby boom, stimulated by pro-natalist population policy measures in the 1970s, the process stopped in the next decade. Nevertheless, the permanent drop in fertility during the 1980s and 1990s has increased aging, which will become dynamic especially after 2010 when the baby boom generation born in 1945-1955 become old. This development is similar to that of other Western countries ... The projected growth rate of the Czech population for the 1990-2030 period is 0,07 ..."
Rabusic, L., The Czech society is aging (On social and economic implications of demographic aging). In: Ceská spolecost stárne, Brno (Masarykova universita) 1995, pp.187, 188.

[4] **Somr, M. a kol.**, Déjiny Ókolství a pedagogiky (*History of Schooling and Pedagogy*), Praha (SPN) 1987.

[5] **The Czechoslovak Socialist Republic Constitution of 11th July, 1960**, article n. 16. - The fundamental principle of this *Constitution* was that of defining the "leading role of party" in all areas of social life: "A working class vanguard, the Communist Party of Czechoslovakia is the leading power both of society and of the state..."
I*bid.*, article n. 4.

[6] **Technical Education in the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic**, Praha (SPN) 1973.

[7] The *Education Ministry* published a *uniform list of apprenticeship lines*. Included in this list are the description and fundamental data on the individual lines as well as conditions for apprentice education. The following example will provide information with basic data as well as conditions for apprentice education as mentioned in the list of study lines:

Example:

number of apprentice line: 0422
name mechanical engineer *for* boys and girls
short description hand and machine production, repairs of machines and equipment, assembly of ma chines and equipment *apprenticeship for youth with completed compulsory education:* 3 years *preparatory period:* 22 month *apprenticeship for youth with completed secondary education:* 1,5 years *preparatory period:* 10 month *number of apprentices per one instructor:* 8-12 **Nabídka programu pro dalsí vzdelávání pedagogickych pracovníku** (*Programmes for Further Education of Pedagogic Workers*), Brno (MU-CDVU) 1996, p. 7-13.

[9] **Láznicková, I.**, Z cinnosti Muzea romské kultury (*Report on Activities of Museum for Romany Culture in 1994*). **Bulletin Muzea romské kultury**, 1994, n. 3, p. 5. For further details see : **Láznicková, I.**, O muzeu romské kultury v Brne (*About Museum for Romany Culture in Brno*). **Romano Dzaniben**, 1995, ns. 1-2, p. 11-12.

[10] **Newsletter** of Jan Hus Educational Foundation, 1996, n. 3, p. 1.

[11] **International Higher Education Support Program 1996** (information), Open Society Institute, 1996, p. 4-5.

[12] **Lojda, J.**, Zapojení Ceské republiky do nadnárodních programu distancního vzdélávání *(Involvement of the Czech Republic within Distance Education International Programmes)*. **Aula**, 1996, n. 1, pp. 2-8.

[13] **Jochmann, V.**, Distancní vzdelávání v cinnosti vysokych sko *(Universities and Distance Education)*. **Aula**, 1994, n. 4, pp. 12-14. **Jochmann, V., Bocková, V.**, Ceská republika: Adult Education Research Trends in Central and Eastern European Countries. National Report on the Basis of the Questionnaire SASREA-CEEC, Olomouc (Palacky University) 1993 (*manuscript*).

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[14] **Jochmann, V., Bocková, V.**, Distancní vzdelávání jako nová vzdelávací prílezitost *(Distance Education as a New Educational Opportunity)*. **Aula**, 1995, n. 1, pp. 2-8.

[15] **Zlámalová, H., Prucha, J.**, Národní centrum distancního vzdelávání v CR *(The National Centre of Distance Education in the CR)*. **Aula**, 1995, n. 4, pp. 2-5.

[16] For this section see : **Trnka, T.**, Lidová vychova, její teorie, slozky, metody a organizace (*Popular Education, Its Theory, Parts, Methods and Organizing*), Ostrava 1970, pp. 202-5.

[17] For this section see : **Skoda, K.**, Kapitoly z dejin ceské osvety (*Chapters from Czech Education History*), Praha (OU) 1968.

[18] **The Czechoslovak Republic Constitution of 29th February,** 1920 (particularly articles 117-121, 113-114).

[19] On December 16, 1992 *The Document of Essential Rights and Liberties* was included in the *Constitutional Order of the Czech Republic* by resolution of the *Czech National Council*. Thus, art. 33 of this document and other relevant articles have become parts of the Czech Republic's legal system and have been central in the educational legislation and policy framework.

[20] **Palán, Z.**, Predpokládany vyvoj v oblasti podnikání institucí vzdelávání dospelych (*A development presupposed in enterprising of educational institutions)*. **AIVD Servis**, 1995, n. 13, p. 18-21.

[21] **Hubík, S.**, Une approche pragmatique de la formation de base: *bricolage* et médias. In: Hautecoeur, J.-P. (ed.), ALPHA 96. Formation de base et travail, Toronto-Hamburg (UNESCO) 1994, pp. 364-387.

[22] "Retraining is a change of the existing qualification of a job seeker which enables the seeker to work in a suitable profession thanks to acquisition of new knowledge and skills by means of theoretical or practical preparation." **Employment Services in the Czech Republic**, Prague (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs) 1996, p. 18.

[23] **AIVD Servis**, 1996, n. 14, p. 1.

[24] Ministerstvo kultury - vyhlásení konkursu (*Ministry of Culture - Advertising a Contest*). **Místní kultura** (Informacní servis) IV, 1995, p. 6.

[25] *Ibid.*, p. 7.

[26] **Grantovy program pro dospelé. Projekt na realizaci spolecenskych a kulturních aktivit. Open Society Fund** (*Grant Programme for Aults. Project for Realizing of Social and Cultural Activities*). **Místní kultura**, IV, 1995, n. 6, p. 28-9.

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Chapter 10

MONOGRAPH ON THE TRANSITION TO PERMANENT EDUCATION MODELS IN BURKINA FASO

by Amadé Badini

General Introduction

Like several of the young South Saharan African states, Burkina Faso has been making its way as an independent state since its accession to international sovereignty. It has had its share of socio-economic and cultural difficulties, and of these the structural problems of its education system are the most notable. The general characteristics of this kind of problem are fairly well known; various solutions, some better, some worse, have been put forward and several kinds of solution tried, some systematic, some less so, but the chances of their being permanently adopted are by no means guaranteed.

Today, ever since the International Conference on Education for All until the year 2000 was held at Jomtien in 1990, the emphasis has been on the need to work out and put into practice innovative and alternative methods which can go some way to correcting the faults of the present education system and reducing the various hindrances and obstacles which have become entrenched in the last few decades. "Models of Permanent Education" in present-day Burkinabé society are largely defined by the national political will as regards education since they will eventually form one of the new solutions to the problem.

The idea of producing a "monograph" on the situation of permanent education in Burkina Faso arose from the need to go beyond general well-meaning discussion, and to use statistics and observations of particular cases to identify the actual situation, the realities on the ground, and the aspirations and abilities of the State, families and individuals. This reflected the need to establish objectives, given that the present education situation is not satisfactory. The findings, some of which are quite recent, were to cover the areas specified by the orientation document supplied for the preparation for the Seminar, viz: pre-school education; basic education; secondary education; adult education; the educational enviroment and the general pursuit of permanent education.

1.General Statistics on the Population of Burkina Faso

The population of Burkina Faso grew from 7.96 million in 1985 to 9.19 million in 1991 and 9,392,567 in 1994; in 1995 it is estimated at 10.40 million.

The average annual growth is 2.64% .

The population forecast is 12.1 million in the year 2000 and 14 million in 2005.

The rate of urban migration has gone up from 12.7% in 1985 to 16.2% in 1994.

In 1994 48.2% of the population was aged under 15 years old. The population is essentially young: the average age is 21.6 years, with 50% being over 15.9 years old.

At an annual growth rate of 2.9%, the population of school age, which was estimated at 1.802 million children in 1991, will reach 2.33 million in the year 2000 and 2.689 million in 2005, when this number will make up more than 19% of the entire population. (The 5-9 age range will make up about 18.4% of the total.)

1.1.Budgetary data

The amount allocated to education from the current State expenditure is rising: 21% for the period 1986-1993 as against 17% for the preceding period.

In 1986-1988, basic education received more than half the available resources: 52.61% compared with 47.39% for secondary and higher education and for scientific research.

1.2.Economic and financial situation

Burkina Faso is classed among the least-developed countries (LDCs) on account of its low income per head of population, which was 300 US$ in 1993.

Industry is very little developed; agriculture is the main source of income and accounts for 85% of the working population.

As regards the public finances, there is a permanent deficit in the State budget. This was 28 billion CFA francs in 1993, or 4% of gross domestic product (GDP).

2.Theory and general considerations of "Permanent Education"

The current contemporary usage of the term "permanent education", (*éducation permanente*) particularly under the influence of the work of UNESCO, has not reduced at all the complexities and even misunderstandings which confuse the real meaning of the term and the expectations it arouses among people in general. Indeed, sometimes "permanent education" is assumed to be the equivalent of continuing education and vice versa; sometimes it applies to in-service training, sometimes to continuing vocational training. Within all these terms there are varying degrees of nuance depending on the status of the target population, their position as regards the working world and the goals which are assigned to them. These definitions were originally developed in the context of work, the economy and the relationship between the individual and a company's productivity, but the common denominator for all is that the training takes place during employment in an occupation and provides permanent or regular updating, which is necessary for the personal development of workers, the improvement of the quality of their work, and the production of certain material and/or social benefits.

This approach concentrates essentially on returns to investment and is somewhat reductionist when compared with the idea expressed in the English term "lifelong education". The advantage of the latter over the former is that it favours people's personal and legitimate aspirations, which are based on what they can gain for themselves from education. From this point of view, although the concept of permanent education is a recent one for Black Africa, the idea may yet be old according to the traditional African education systems: sometimes education is permanent, sometimes not. The individual is educated "from the cradle to the grave" without interruption, and through every element of social and economic daily life. For instance, today in Burkina Faso traditional African education is increasingly relying on the "informal" (in the pejorative meaning), and the "modern" system which is attempting to replace it is going through all the well-known difficulties and bad patches: internal inefficiencies, external deficiencies, elitism and lack of democracy. The training is insufficient and inappropriate, and there is insufficient fulfilment of the aspirations and hopes placed in it by society, workers and individuals themselves.

Given all the limits and inadequacies of the conventional education system, national education policy is moving more and more towards recognising the need to create and develop a system of permanent education based on continuing education so as to remedy the theoretical and practical inadequacies of initial school education, which was the responsibility of the school and/or the University, and to take account of the majority of the population who have been ignored by the school system.

2.1.The current situation

Permanent education in a systematic form is a recent preoccupation in Burkina Faso. Such non-formal education as has been undertaken since the 1960s (with the *Rural schools and Training Centres for Young Farmers)* and various projects such as *Upper Volta-UNESCO: Equality of Access for Women and Girls to Education (1974)* have tried to correct the deficiencies of the school system and the injustices caused by gender in education, but it has not taken permanent education into account. Adult literacy projects do not include a permanent education philosphy. It is only continuing education in its vocational form which is provided, and that is underfunded and does not produce particularly good results. The *Etats Généraux de l'Education* (General Education Council) of Burkina Faso, which was set up in September 1994, looked at this question and emphasised continuing vocational training rather than "lifelong" learning as being a requirement for people who wished to improve their lives and flourish in their particular circumstances.

The transition to permanent education in Burkina Faso will be considered according to the points enumerated above.

2.1.1 Pre-school education

Pre-school education in Upper Volta and then in Burkina Faso began at about the same time as the colonial school , and from 1950 included the children from the French military bases at Bobo-Dioulasso. It has thus been going on for some time in the form of the *école maternelle* (nursery school), but has never been within the reach of all children of the appropriate age (3-6 years). The cole maternelle has operated entirely within the exclusive private sector, and until recently has been outside the technical and administrative control of the State, as it was not considered urgent to incorporate it into mainstream schooling. As far as the education and supervision of children aged from 3 to 6 was concerned, the responsibility lay entirely with their families.

The *Project to Reform the Education System*, begun in 1979, marked the beginning of the inclusion of early childhood in official education programmes. It was to be the first link in the education process, logically preceding the primary school cycle. This proposal remained theoretical, but was reaffirmed by the Etats Généraux in 1994, even though pre-schooling is not regarded as a priority for economic and technical reasons. From 1985, pre-schooling was given a significant boost when it was reorganised as part of the national plan into the form of *Garderies populaires* (public créches) with the following objectives:

to popularise pre-school education;

to ensure the care of the child from 0 to 6 years of age as regards education, health and nutrition;

to alert families as to how they could best fulfil their role in the activities which help to awaken and develop young children;

to release mothers from the task of looking after children so that they could undertake paid work more easily;

to encourage children's mental and physical development, and

to socialise children.

From a political point of view the object was not only to open the pre-school to the maximum number of children (rural, semi-urban and urban), but particularly to make the public créche into an educational structure which was financially and geographically accessible to the majority , a truly "popular" affair at all levels - administration, day-to-day management and staffing - using traditional, local human, technical and material resources wherever possible.

From 1995, as part of the basic philosophy of providing basic education for all, and following the experiences with the *Satellite Schools* and the *Basic Non-formal Education Centres*, various *Projects for the Development ofYoung Children* were set up by the Ministry of Social Action and the Family. As the conventional public créches had been somewhat limited by circumstances, it was necessary to create structures which would take more account of the context and would thus form part of an education for young children which would be integrated into normal life with, in principle, the participation of the mothers. At the same time the Ministry of Basic Education and Literacy began a *Project for the Development of Young Children.*

The statistics for pre-school education are as follows : in 1991: 0.72% or 9,000 children were at pre-school out of a target population of 1,162,832 children aged between 3 and 6 years old;

there were 58 public créches and 31 private kindergartens distributed over 21 provinces;

in 1994: 0.80% of those aged from 0 - 6 years or 9,300 children (3 - 6) , in 117 establishments, of which 72 were public (public créches, cole maternelle run by the Red Cross) and 45 private;

in 1995:72 créches and 45 kindergartens in 23 provinces.

Generally speaking, pre-schools are concentrated in the main centres - the towns of Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso account for 80% of these establishments - but they remain very expensive for most families. The State supports them very little. It is only foreign aid (bilateral and multilateral) sent by way of the non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and the international organisations - UNICEF, UNESCO, UNFPA, MAP and UNDP - which contributes to the expansion of social pre-schools. There are various internal and external limits to community participation which mean that efficiency and regularity are reduced.

N.B. Pre-school education is officially recognised in the *National Plan* for basic education (1995-2000) as paving the way for education. However, it is expensive, and demanding, if it is to be effective in facilitating children's entry to primary school and their subsequent successful career there, and so the State cannot afford to put the theory into practice. The projects which have been begun are largely involved in partnerships with local collectives, communities or NGOs, and in the search for new methods which mean that families can take part, particularly the mothers.

2.1.2. Basic education

Basic education is the part of the Burkina Faso education system about which we know most because of the multiplicity of different kinds of research which have been carried out on it. There may still be a great deal to do from the point of view of the content, but basic education is the first priority of all in this period of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), and there are a number of challenges to be met: as regards quantity and quality and the balance between education and socio-economic life, for instance.

Since 1995, a *Development Plan for Basic Education in Burkina Faso for the Period 1995-2000* has begun to be put into practice. This programme hopes to reach a school enrolment figure of 40% between now and the year 2000 and 60% in 2005, which is still a long way off the Jomtien proposals (basic education for all by the year 2000). In 1994 the Etats Généraux de l'Education suggested that basic education, here bracketed together with primary schooling, should be a stage that was sufficient in itself, and should no longer be intended necessarily to lead to secondary education, which provided its sole justification and means of evaluation.

Various projects have been initiated and carried out with the general objectives of extending the provision of basic education, the raising of the quality, and the internal and external efficiency of the system. *Intermediate programmes such as the plan for the education of girls, the programme for the training of teachers and educational administrators, and the institutional support provided by the technical services of the Ministry of Basic Education and Literacy* have helped to realise these general objectives. Support projects for basic education, with technical and financial assistance from Canada and France, are going ahead, and programmes for innovations and research on new and alternative methods, with the help of UNICEF, UNESCO, and UNFPA have been functioning since 1995.

Statistics on basic education

The gross rate for school enrolment in Burkina Faso was 34% in 1995.

The net rate was 33.68% (38.53% boys and 28.32% girls).

These figures show a disparity between the sexes, but there are other more noticeable gaps in the figures for the provinces: 60-80% in Kadiogo and Houet against 7% in the provinces of the north and east (Seno and Gnagna, for example). Several provinces out of the 30 which make up the country have school enrolment rates well below the national average.

(N.B. More details of these statistics will be given in the annex.)

As to how internally efficient basic education is, it is obvious that there are substantial losses from enrolment, some students repeating years, others dropping out altogether for various reasons, which raises the cost of education, currently 22,000 francs per year per pupil. Out of a total of 99,824 pupils in CM2 in 1992-93 (the last class of primary school), only 33,976 entered the 6th class and only 27,638 had not repeated a year. During the 1970s, out of every 1,000 pupils entering CP1, hardly 100 reached college or *lycée* level. Consequently, a large proportion of students in basic education leave the system with no formal qualifications. This situation has caused the reforms proposed and undertaken to focus on devising remedial and vocational education structures for those who have been failed by the system.

In general, access to primary education is still very limited in Burkina Faso. During the years 1993-1994, for instance, out of a potential school enrolment of 1,774,000 children, only 562,644 had the opportunity to go to school, a gross rate of 32.93%. By way of comparison, the average figure for the Sahel countries is 52% and for South Saharan Africa 77%. There are wide disparities between the various areas and also between the two sexes. Over half the country's provinces have a school enrolment figure below the national average. As regards the difference between the sexes, the number of girls is rising slightly faster (10.02%) than that of the boys (8.8%), but the girls still only make up 28% in the rural areas and 45% in the cities, partly because of the great number of early marriages and partly because parents give educational preference to boys.

2.1.3. Literacy; Non-formal education; Adult education

a) Some definitions

Literacy means the ability of a given person to be able to read and write a simple sentence and to be able to carry out the four simple operations in any particular language. In Burkina Faso, for historical reasons, the main language of literacy is French, which is the official language, and which is used in administrative, legal, economic and political life. Of all the people who are literate 85.8% are so in French. Then there are 21 national languages which are now being systematically used for literacy purposes, out of about 60 in the whole country. Moor , Dioula, Fulfuld , Gulmac ma, L l , Kas na, Dagara, Lobi, etc. are each governed by the official rules of the *Commissions nationales des langues* (National Languages Commissions). Literacy in Arabic is growing in the country because of the *Médersa* (French-Arabic schools) and the Koranic schools. Some sample figures are: Moor , 4.2%; Gulmacéma, 0.9%; Dioula, 0.3%, and Lobi, 0.2%.

b) General data

Literacy, as defined above, in relation to those aged at least 10 years old (that is, above the official age for entry to formal schooling, 7-9 years), only covers a small minority of the population: 22%. Three people out of four are illiterate in Burkina Faso.

Women are less literate than men: 70% as against 85%, while 92% of the women are literate in French, and 82.6% of the men. As well as the disparities between the sexes, there are marked differences according to location and place of residence: 56.1% of literate people live in the towns and 14.9% in the rural areas.

None of the local areas has achieved the national average of 22%:

Ouagadougou/Bobo-Dioulasso: 59.5%
Other medium-sized towns: 47.5%
Western regions: 17%
Central/Southern regions: 18%
Northern area: 6% (the lowest).

Table 1 : BREAKDOWN OF THE LITERATE POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE LANGUAGE OF LITERACY AND GENDER (%)

Language of literacy	GENDER		COMBINED	Rm
	males	females		
Moor	4.70	3.32	4.23	274
Dioula	0.27	0.35	0.30	149
Fulfuld	0.13	0.10	0.12	253
Bissa	0.04	0.10	0.06	77
Gulmacèma	0.95	0.90	0.93	204
Gourounsi	0.00	0.08	0.03	-
Sénoufo	0.01	0.00	0.01	-
Lobi	0.33	0.02	0.22	3742
Dagara	0.16	0.03	0.12	1098
Gouin	0.03	0.00	0.02	-
French	82.13	91.92	85.79	173
Others	10.75	3.19	8.17	649
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	193
Actual numbers	(887735)	(460186)	(1347921)	

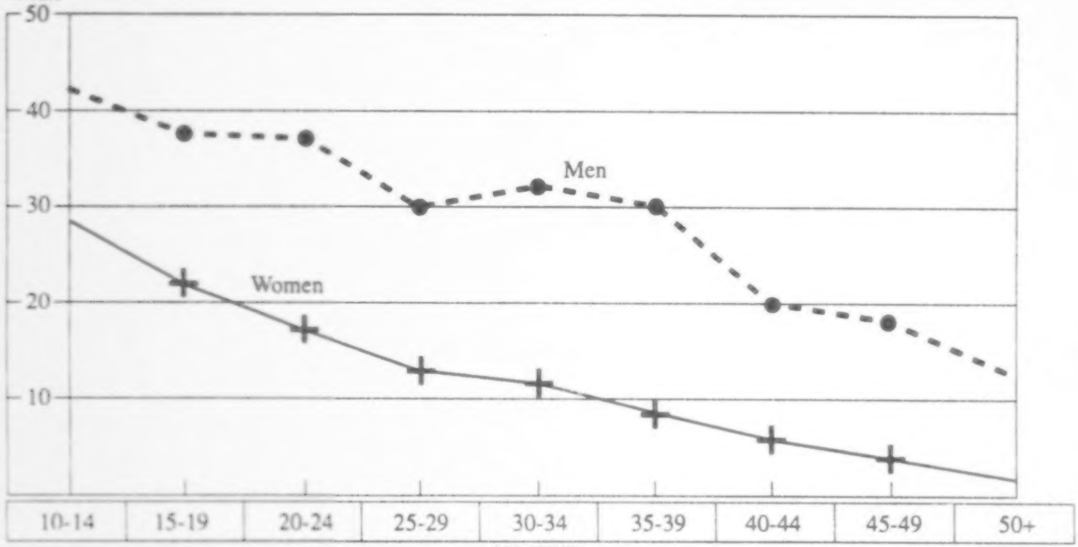
Source: *Profil de pauvrété au Burkina Faso*, MEFS/INSD 1996

The progress made in school enrolments has generally helped to increase the rate of literacy within the population. The breakdown of the literacy rates according to age makes this clear.

Table 2 : LITERACY RATES BY GENDER ACCORDING TO AGE (%)

Age group	Males	Females	Combined
10-14	41.8	29.1	35.8
15-19	37.7	22.2	30.2
20-24	37.6	17.7	27.2
25-29	30.4	12.9	20.8
30-34	32.0	11.6	20.6
35-39	30.0	8.1	17.2
40-44	20.6	6.4	12.9
45-49	19.2	4.5	11.1
50 and over	13.3	2.5	7.6
Total	30.2	14.6	22.2

Graph:DISTRIBUTION OF LITERACY RATES ACCORDING TO AGE AND GENDER



Source: Profil de pauvrété au Burkina Faso 1996

Table 3 : LITERACY RATES BY AGE AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPING OF THE CM

Age	Socio-economic groups							Combined
	Public sector employees	Private sector employees	Craftsmen & commerce	Other workers	Farmers	Market gardeners	Non-working/ unemployed	
10-14	88.1	75.7	66.5	54.0	24.7	27.5	49.2	35.8
15-19	82.1	64.0	57.0	52.0	19.4	21.0	49.0	30.2
20-24	81.1	57.2	48.9	53.4	18.5	16.5	44.3	27.2
25-29	76.5	55.0	42.2	38.2	12.1	11.4	28.5	20.8
30-34	80.6	52.7	33.8	43.0	16.4	10.5	21.5	20.6
35-39	71.1	49.5	36.2	33.5	9.1	10.4	16.6	17.2
40-44	75.2	46.0	28.5					
45-49	79.0	34.4	23.2	20.5	8.1	6.1	15.7	11.1
50+	36.7	13.9	12.9	4.5	3.4	3.6	6.7	7.6
Total		79.2	56.5	44.5	42.3	15.0	14.5	29.5 22.2

Source: *Profil de pauvrété au Burkina Faso* 1996

d) Action taken to raise the literacy rate

The illiteracy which affects more than 80% of the population, in this case the active section, or those aged between 15 and 60 years old, is one of the main constraints on national, socio-economic, and socio-cultural development, and it complicates any programmes concerning population, public health or political and civic life. That is why the struggle against this scourge - the scourge of all scourges - has been prominent in the minds of the politicians and in the national development plans for several decades, even if the results so far are still disappointing; this is due to rising demographic rates, precarious and scanty technical and financial resources, and vacillating policies.

However, in more recent years, from 1985-86, there have been operations such as *alpha commando* and *Bantaré* , and, more formally, the creation of the Permanent Literacy and Education Centres (CPAF), which have helped to raise the literacy rate considerably and made it relevant to education and the general improvement of living and working conditions and social life. The programme taking place at the moment aims to raise the literacy rate from 24% in 1994 to 50% in the year 2000, with particular emphasis on literacy for women.

This overall picture takes in also non-formal education, adult education and innovative methods linking non-formal with formal education in order to achieve a reciprocal imrovement in performances. As well as the CPAF, the projects of Operation Zanu, the Satellite Schools and the Non-Formal Basic Education Centres have all been started since 1994-95, with the purpose of realising the goal of education for all, which will eventually lead to universal literacy. There has been a Ministry with specific responsibility for basic education and literacy since 1988.

N.B. The National Institute of Statistics and Demography (INSD), run by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Finance, has carried out some studies on "Literacy, gender and poverty" and on "Literacy, place of residence and poverty" as part of the report on *Profile of Poverty in Burkina Faso*, February 1996.

2.2.4. Secondary education

a) General considerations

One of the general characteristics of education in Burkina Faso is the hiatus between primary and secondary schooling, although the intention is that the latter should follow on naturally from the former. Paradoxically, the two systems have developed separately, and this has worsened the plight of the national education system considerably. They are run by two different ministries, but this does not explain the situation entirely. To remedy this absurdity, the Etats Généraux de l'Education have suggested some solutions, and a wide-ranging programme for the development of post-primary education costing several billion CFA francs is being negotiated with various technical and financial agencies, including the World Bank and the IMF.

Another problem, peculiar to secondary education, is the imbalance between general secondary and technical secondary education.

b) Statistics

The rate of secondary school enrolment , based on the number of children between 14 and 20 years old in the first cycle of secondary education compared with the overall number of children of the same age, is about 11.20% over the whole country. There is an even greater contrast than in the primary sector between the towns (35.5%) and the country (5.1%). The difference between the towns of Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso and the other towns is much less marked (36.6% against 32.8%). The private sector is responsible for a third of all secondary school teaching. It is staffed mainly by secular teachers (84% of all private secondary school teachers), who cover 25.8% of secondary pupils. The disparity between the sexes is less pronounced here than for primary education in the private sector: 3.5% for girls and 3.6% for boys, as it is in the public sector of secondary education. In the whole of the secondary sector the figures are 8.6% for girls and 13.6% for boys.

2.2.5. Vocational education

a) Vocational education in Burkina Faso is made up of three recognised components, although there is some institutional overlap.

Formal training usually carried out in schools and training centres attached to the various technical ministries, such as Information and Communication, Economic Affairs and Finance, Agriculture, and Environment, Tourism and Hotels. In general it is taught in a well-structured programme, with defined evaluation criteria, and provides students with a recognised qualification.

Non-formal training for a diversified target population, with programme and training objectives which are flexible and can be adapted and modified according to particular needs and requirements. Emphasis is put on activities which are directly relevant to a work context, to encourage workers or prospective workers who have inadequate financial and academic resources, or who have no opportunity to take up a formal training. In this respect it is more like continuing or permanent education.

Informal training "on the job", in an everyday context, where various skills can be acquired through practice and experience. This method is very widespread throughout Burkina Faso on account of the high level of illiteracy and the importance of the informal sector within the national economy (about 30-40% of GNP).

ANNEX: LIST OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING ESTABLISHMENTS
FORMAL

CEP=Primary Education Certificate
CAP=Pre-vocational Certificate
BEPC=Lower Secondary Certificate
BAC=Upper Secondary Certificate
Licence=First Degree

Establishments	Ministry responsible	Entry level	No. of years of study	Diplomas/qualifications
1. Centre de formation professionnelle de l'equipements	Supply	CAP BEPC/CAP	2 2	Qualified labourer Technician
2. Centre de formation professionnelle de la SONABEL (Société nationale d'électricité)	Supply	BEPC/CAP	2	Technician
3. Ecole nationale d'administration et de la magistrature (ENAM)	Public function	BEPC/BAC Licence/ dipl mes ENAM	2 3	Admin. secretary Magistrate, Civil admin.
4. Centre de formation professionnelle de l'ENAM	Public function	BEPC	2	Copy-typist
5. Ecole nationale des postes	Communication & culture	CEP BEPC	1 2	Clerical officer, technician Operating agent
6. Ecole nationale des télécommunications	(ONATEL & ONP)	BAC	2	Controller
7. Ecole nationale des régies financières (ENAREF)	Economy, finances & planning	BEPC BAC Vocational Master's	2 2 3	Accounts clerk Controller Inspector, administrator
8. Ecole nationale des douanes		BEPC BAC Master's	2 2 2	Assistant Controller Inspector
9. Centre de formation professionnelle de l'ONEA	Water	BEPC	2	Operating agent
10. Centre agricole polyvalent de Matourkou	Agriculture	BEPC BAC	2 2	Technician Superviser

11. Centre de formation professionnelle de l'information	Communication	BEPC BAC	2 2	Operating agent Skilled operator
12. ENESA	MARA	BEPC BAC	2 2	Technician Stockman
13. Ecole nationale de police	MAT	BEPC BAC Master's		Assistant Inspector Superintendent
14. Ecole nationale de la santé public	MSASF	CEPE BEPC BAC Licence/ Master's	2 2 3 3	Travelling worker, senior midwife, Qualified nurse, technician State-registered nurse, midwife, radio operator, pharmacist, hospital manager Administrator
15. IPB	MEBAM	CAP/ primary school teaching qualification	3	Primary school inspectors
16. Institut national du sport	M. Sport	BEPC Vocational	3	Master, EPS Prof. EPS
17. Centre de formation des formateurs d'agriculteurs de Farakoba et Kamboinsé	MARA	BEPC		
		BAC	2	Assistant
		Licence	2	Adviser
18. Ecole nationale foresterie de Dinderesso	MET	CEP BEPC BAC	1 2 2	Agent Assistant Controller
19. Ecole nationale de service sociale (Gaoua)	MASF	BEPC	3	Instructor
20. ENEP (Loumbila)	MEBAM	BEPC	1	Certified IA
21. ENEP (Bobo)	MEBAM	BEPC	1	Certified IA
22. Centre de formation en développement socio-sanitaire	MSASF	Vocational	2	Obstetrics assistant

NON-FORMAL

Establishments	Ministry responsible	Entry level	No. of years of study	Diplomas/qualifications
1. Centre Nimem Soo Panga	Clergy		2	Sewing, weaving or literacy certificate
2. Centre de promotion sociale (nouveau camp)	Defence		3	Household economy certificate
3. Centre de production sociale (Camp Guillaume)	Defence		3	Household economy certificate
4. Centre de tissage du secteur 16 Ouaga			2	Soap production certificate
5. Centre d'apprentissage de Goundi (Koudougou)	Clergy	CPE CFJA	3	Agricultural worker, carpenter, builder, welder
6. Maison de la femme				
7. Service de promotion des assurés sociaux	CNSS		3	ESF Certificate
8. Centre de formation Dechelette (Bobo)	Clergy	CEP	2	Typist's certificate
9. Amical des travailleurs (CNSS/ Bobo)	METSS		3	ESF Certificate
10. Centre Faso Jigi			1	Sewing certificate
11. Centre ménager et familial (Réo)	Clergy			
12. Centre social privé			CM2	Family and household training

13. INEPRO (Gampela)	MSASF			
14. Centre Orodara	MSASF			Young people in difficulties
15. Centre de promotion rurale de Goundi	MARA	CM CFJA leaver	2	Young farmers
16. CFJA	MARA		3	Household economy certificate

INFORMAL

Establishments	Ministry responsible	Entry level	No. of years of study	Diplomas/qualifications
1. Units and areas of agricultural training	MARA			
2. Training systems	All departments and NGOs			
3. Workshops in the informal sector	Public			

Source: *Actes des Etats Généraux de l'Education*, Ouagadougou 1994

b) Statistics on Vocational Education

Vocational education is not at all well developed as a formal part of the education system. Most jobs in the informal sector, such as carpentry, building and mechanical engineering, are learnt "on the job" in an informal manner. Only 0.2% of young people in Burkina Faso enter vocational training: 0.1% after the first cycle of primary education, and a few either before the CEP (Certificate of Primary Education) (0.01%) or after (0.09%).

Vocational education, particularly post-primary, is concentrated in the towns near the *lyceés techniques* (Technical *Lyceés*) and the *Centres d'études techniques* (Technical Study Centres), for both girls and boys. In the rural areas, often at the primary level, it is run by the *Centres nationaux de perfectionnement des artisans ruraux* (CNPAR) (National Centres for the Training of Rural Workers) and by the CNP *des artisans urbains* (Town Workers). These organisations are quite recent, and replaced the *Centres de formation de jeunes agriculteurs* (CFJA) (Training Centres for Young Farmers). However, several *lycées* professionnels *d'orientation agricole* (Vocational Agricultural *Lycées*) which will provide training in tertiary skills are planned for the economic areas in the medium-sized towns, such as Ouahigouya and Kaya.

Table 4 : DEVELOPMENT OF CFJAs FROM 1970-1991.

Campaign period	No. of CFJAs opened		No. of CFJA students						Rate of training: pupils/instructors
	Begin. of campaign	End of campaign	Beginning of campaign			End of campaign			
			Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	
1969-1970	700	n.a.	24,187	2,177	26,364	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	37.66
1974-1975	740	n.a.	20,054	1,875	21,932	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	29.63
1979-1980	750	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	22,000	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	29.33
1983-1984	600	589	12,989	1,387	14,376	10,638	930	11,568	24.41
1984-1985	639	634	15,195	1,790	16,985	13,349	1,517	14,866	26.79
1985-1986	636	631	14,199	1,910	16,109	13,430	1,755	15,185	25.53
1986-1987	616	611	13,646	2,071	15,717	12,315	1,846	14,161	25.72
1987-1988	589	n.a.	12,968	2,551	15,519	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	26.35
1988-1989	549	571	9,904	2,125	12,029	7,980	1,760	9,740	21.06
1989-1990	542	520	9,527	2,079	11,606	9,276	2,166	11,442	22.32
1990-1991	477	n.a.	8,668	1,942	10,610	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	22.24

Calculated using the number of CFJAs and the total numbers remaining at the end of the campaign, except where numbers are not available (1987-88 and 1990-91). Source: *Directorate of Training for Young Farmers.*

In the towns, very few children take up a vocational training before the CEPE and those are girls only (0.4%) from more well-off families (5th quintile) in the towns other than Ouagadougou and Bobo.

In the rural areas, almost no girls pursue a vocational training; the boys mostly come from poor homes (the first two quintiles, and more particularly the second).

Post-primary vocational training, at the level of the first and second cycles of secondary education (which are equally important), is all situated in urban areas and three-quarters of it is in Ouagadougou and Bobo.

There is a much greater proportion of girls enrolled for post-primary vocational training. This is because the vocational training which is provided, particularly at the level of the first secondary cycle, is administrative or social, such as secretarial skills, typing, nursing and mid-wifery, which are typically considered "women's" jobs .

It is also the case that the opportunities for work tend to be lower for those leaving vocational training schools, with or without a diploma. Only 19.87% found a job in Ouagadougou in 1987 (3,288 out of 22,110) according to ONPE (1987, p. 6). (See Table IV.8 below)

This poor showing in the labour market explains the disillusionment with the vocational schools, where the figures, according to ONPE, were 7,563 pupils in 1984, but 5,671 in 1990, a reduction of 25%.

Table 5 : WORK SITUATION FOR THOSE LEAVING VOCATIONAL TRAINING ESTABLISHMENTS, FOR OUAGADOUGOU IN 1987, ACCORDING TO TRAINING

Type of training	Job applications	Job offers	Nos leaving vocational training establishments 1987
0: primary sector	144	16	130
1 and 2: scientific and technical	5,588	1,548	743
3: economic, commercial or tourism	1,261	372	539
4: social sector	161	25	179
5: administration and legal	7,262	495	508
6: medical sector	4	-	240
7: education	-	18	451
8: literary and artistic	168	6	10
9: no training	7,522	808	-
Total	22,110	3,288	2,800

Source : *La situation des éléments en formation (année scolaire 1986-1987)* p. 6
Profil de pauvrété au Burkina Faso 1996

c) Vocational training, whether formal, non-formal, or simply informal, allows for vocational mobility, which usually justifies it. The study carried out at the time of the "urgent enquiry into household living conditions in Burkina Faso by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Finance and Planning - INSD - in February 1996 is quite informative on the subject of vocational mobility. The extracts from the report on the above-mentioned study take note of the situation. They are reproduced here directly (pages 193-6, 198).

3. Occupational Mobility

The urgent enquiry estimated that there were 283,542 active workers who stated that they had had a previous job. Of these, 231,570 were still active, and 51,972 were so no longer. Out of the total number of active workers employed during the week under survey, the vocational mobility rate is estimated at 231,570/ 4,651,318 or 4.98%, which is the percentage of active workers who changed jobs within the labour market.

3.1 Length of time spent working in previous job

Active workers who had a previous job had held it for varying periods.

The first observation that can be made from the information in Table 6 is that the number of active workers who had been working for a fairly long time before leaving their last job are not in the majority. Those who had worked there for more than 11 years made up 26.8 %, rather more than a quarter. Another quarter or, more exactly, 28.61% kept their previous jobs for between 6 and 10 years. Nearly half the active workers who changed their job did so after less than 5 years in their previous job: 44.6%.

Table 6 : BREAKDOWN OF ACTIVE WORKERS WHO HAD HAD A PREVIOUS JOB, ACCORDING TO THEIR PRESENT POSITION AND LENGTH OF TIME SPENT IN IT

3.2.Reasons for changing jobs

Time spent in job	Present employment situation				Combined	
	Employed		Unemployed			
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Less than 1 year	11,279	4.9	3,835	7.4	15,114	5.3
1-5 years	92,574	40.0	18,933	36.4	111,507	39.3
6-10 years	62,866	27.1	13,009	25.0	75,875	26.8
more than 10 years	64,851	28.0	16,195	31.2	81,046	28.6
Total	231,570	100.0	51,972	100.0	283546	100.0

Proceeding from the above table which shows numbers of active workers who have had a previous job, one can see that in general the reasons given for a change of job are not very precise: 25.4% gave in their notice, and 40.8% gave no particular reason. Nevertheless, reasons relating to the economic situation are given, particularly low salaries, which affected 7%, while redundancy and cutbacks accounted for 5.4%, closing down of businesses for 9% and promotion or demotion for 1.9%.

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Table 7 : BREAKDOWN OF ACTIVE WORKERS WHO HAD HELD A PREVIOUS JOB ACCORDING TO THEIR PRESENT STATE OF ACTIVITY AND THE REASON FOR THEIR CHANGE OF JOB

Reason for changing job	Present employment situation				Combined	
	Employed		Unemployed			
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Low salary	13,411	7.0	5,441	12.3	18,852	8.0
Redundancy/ cutbacks	10,262	5.4	4,328	9.8	14,589	6.2
Closing down of business	17,228	9.0	5,944	13.4	23,172	9.9
Notice given	56,092	29.4	3,542	8.0	59,634	25.4
Promotion/ demotion	3,670	1.9	710	1.6	4,380	1.9
Hostile environment	12,565	6.6	2,333	5.3	14,898	6.3
Other	74,748	39.2	21,005	47.5	95,753	40.8
NSP	2,717	1.4	944	2.1	3661	1.6
Total	190,692	100.0	44,247	100.0	234,940	100.0

If one tries to connect the reason for the change of job with the period spent in it, it is clear that those giving low salary as the reason for change made up 63% of those leaving during their first five years of working in their previous job, but fewer did so after ten years of working there (13.0%). Changes of job for reasons of promotion or demotion are evenly spread over the last three periods of time spent in the previous job, as promotion or demotion can happen at any point. Figures for the other types of reason parallel the total figure.

3.3 Occupational mobility by occupational status

Table 8 : MATRIX OF CHANGES OF JOB ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL STATUS

Present situation	Position in the previous work situation							Combined
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	26.9%	6.6%	20.8%	0.3%	8.1%	0.6%	0.5%	63.9%
2	1.5%	2.4%	2.3%	0.1%	1.3%	0.4%	0.1%	8.2%
3	2.8%	0.5%	3.7%	0.1%	1.9%	0.6%	0.1%	9.7%
4	0.2%	0.3%	0.4%	0.1%	0.6%	0.0%	0.1%	1.7%
5	8.8%	0.1%	4.2%	0.0%	1.4%	0.3%	0.1%	15.0%
6	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%	0.0%	0.9%
7	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%
Total	40.5%	10.0%	31.9%	0.6%	14.0%	2.1%	0.9%	100%

POSITION IN THE PREVIOUS WORK SITUATION

1. Self-employed
2. Public employee
3. Private employee
4. Employer
5. Domestic helper
6. Apprentice/trainee
7. Voluntary

The matrix of changes of job according to occupational status is somewhat unclear, which implies that there are movements of active workers from one status to another.

Table 8 above tells us that 34.7% of changes of job happen within the same ocupational status, with the majority, 26.9%, changing from one self-employed to another self-employed situation.

The main changes of job take place among public employees, private employees and domestic helpers, when they become self-employed, which accounts for 6.6%, 20.8% and 8.1% of job changes respectively. There are also some changes of status on the part of the self-employed and the private sector employees who have transferred to domestic work. It is also clear that even if this happens on a smaller scale, there are 8.8% with access to salaried employment who are active workers who have changed their job but have previously been self-employed or domestic helpers.

The main characteristic of occupational mobility by occupational status is the net gain in the number of self-employed workers, with 23.4% of job changes, and a net loss of 22.2% in that of salaried private sector workers.

3.4 Changes of job by occupation

Jobs are changed to a limited extent within the occupations. It is noticeable that only 19.5% of job changes have taken place within the same group of occupations, and 9.6%, or about half this proportion, within the group of farmers/stockmen/fishermen/huntsmen.

Table 9 : MATRIX OF INTER-GROUP MOVEMENT (%)

Present work group	Previous work group									Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.2
2	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5
3	0.2	0.1	1.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.0	0.1	4.3
4	0.1	0.0	0.3	4.5	2.9	7.1	0.5	0.1	0.4	16.1
5	0.1	0.0	0.4	1.7	2.6	5.2	0.7	0.1	0.2	10.8
6	0.4	0.2	1.9	14.3	19.7	9.6	3.4	3.3	3.8	56.7
7	0.0	0.0	0.2	1.0	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.0	0.3	4.2
8	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.0	2.4
9	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.6	1.2	1.4	0.3	0.0	0.2	3.9
Total	1.3	0.6	5.5	23.4	29.3	25.7	5.7	3.7	4.9	10

1. Scientific, technical and liberal professions
2. Managers and senior administrative staff
3. Administrative personnel and their equivalents
4. Commercial and sales personnel
5. Specialist service and machinery workers
6. Farmers, stockmen, fishermen and huntsmen
7. Labourers, drivers and skilled workers
8. Armed forces personnel and police
9. Others

Agricultural sector work dominates when jobs are broken down by occupational area, and it is noticeable that job changes generally increase the numbers of farmers/stockmen/ fishermen/huntsmen. This bears witness to a certain "return to the land". In fact, 56.7% of job changes have taken place in this direction, with exactly 47.1% coming from other areas. All groups are affected to some extent by this return to the land, but those most affected are the commercial and sales group, the specialist service and machinery workers, the labourers, drivers and skilled workers, and the armed forces personnel and police.

In conclusion it can be said that inter-sector occupational mobility most affects agriculture/stock-raising/fishing/forests, manufacturing industry, commerce and public service: 88% of active workers have left these four sectors and 94% have joined them; 83.6% of job changes have taken place within these four sectors.

Table 10 : MATRIX OF INTER-SECTOR MOVEMENT

Present work group	Previous work group										Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1	14.2	0.7	13.5	0.2	3.8	12.2	1.8	0.0	10.5	0.7	57.5
2	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.7
3	2.3	0.1	1.5	0.0	0.2	1.1	0.2	0.0	0.9	0.1	6.5
4	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
5	1.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.0	2.7
6	7.3	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.4	4.0	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.0	2.1
7	0.8	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.0	2.1
8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	16.0
9	4.2	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.9	1.9	0.4	0.1	4.2	0.2	14.1
10	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Total	30.2	0.9	20.0	0.2	6.0	19.8	3.6	0.2	18.0	1.1	100

1. Agriculture/stock-raising/fishing/hunting
2. Mining industry
3. Manufacturing industry
4. Electricity, gas and water
5. Building and public works
6. Commerce
7. Transport
8. Banks and financial institutions
9. Public and other services
10. Other sectors

4. Higher Education

a) Higher education is the third level in the formal education system in Burkina Faso, after the primary and secondary. Its chief purpose is to ensure the education of an elite of senior executives who will develop ideas and a sense of purpose to apply to the socio-economic, cultural and political life of the country. Higher education is relatively new, compared with other African states, and was set up in four distinct stages:

1968 - creation of the original framework for higher education

1969 - creation of a higher education centre, with the training of secondary school teachers as an essential purpose

1974 - creation of the University of Ouagadougou, which has been growing ever since in the number of its Institutes and Faculties, the number of students and the development of the reception services and building works.

Higher education is essentially public, and has been established in the two towns of Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso, in the latter only since 1995-96.

The internal returns are not very high. The success rate is modest, around 30%, compared with 20% for the rest of Africa.

The external returns are largely influenced by the economic crisis of the last few years. There is a large proportion of qualified graduates out of work.

b)Statistical data

The net rate of enrolment at the higher level is hardly 1%, and until a few years ago, over 50% of students received State grants (63% in 1994). This rate is steadily declining. The rate for boys is 1.40% against 0.35% for girls.

c) The University and continuing education

Right from the beginning the University of Ouagadougou has opened its doors ever wider to students who do not hold the requisite conventional academic qualifications, and have not obtained the *Baccalauréat* certifying the completion of secondary education. The flow of requests for training for workers has continued to grow as the ever more numerous and diverse branches of learning have appeared on the campus.

There are two ways of making use of this opportunity: students may be unregistered, or they can sit the special University entrance examination. Only the latter, which applies to young adults of 25 or over who can pass a competitive examination, enables them to acquire the status of student on a training course leading to an official higher education degree. In these two ways the University plays a part in the continuing education of the

workers of Burkina Faso. Its essential role is to reinforce whatever the workers may have already learnt and/or to widen their cultural horizons so that they may be better prepared for competitive examinations and achieve a degree of social and occupational mobility which is useful to them.

5. The educational environment

There is progressively more general agreement that educating the people of Burkina Faso is, as elsewhere, a profitable and productive investment for society in general and the individual in particular. Under various guises and by using various equally diverse sources, the Burkina Faso government has over the last thirty years made considerable sacrifices to keep education as its main priority: about a quarter of the budget is reserved for education in general; there has been a large contribution of foreign aid; and there are growing links between the level of education and development.

There have been several studies within the various sectors on the different kinds and levels of education (formal, non-formal and informal) which show how the educational environment in Burkina Faso is improving daily. A spirit of learning is pervading the country, even in the rural areas, because of literacy in the national languages, which is spreading. Very soon each of the 8,000 villages in Burkina Faso will have its own Permanent Literacy and Training Centre (CPAF) and its Operation Zanu centre. There is a growing number of *newspapers in national languages* - there are more than 40 already - and these, along with the village reading centres, will consolidate post-literacy and prevent a return to illiteracy so that there will be a permanent positive attitude to learning at the heart of the population. Slogans such as "Educate a woman and you educate the whole of society" are bringing the question of gender into national education policies and programmes.

Specialist education and training centres for young delinquents and street children have been set up by the Ministry of Social Action and the Family, and *schools for the mentally and physically handicapped* have benefited from many sources of support such as the NGOs and multilateral or bilateral aid. Non-formal education extends widely because of its target population (which is those excluded from the conventional education process or who have never had access to it), its content and programmes, its great ability to adapt to people's needs and work patterns, and the fact that it allows people to arrange their own time.

It is true that in certain provinces, such as Gnagna, Gourma, Namentenga and Séno, there is a paradoxical tendency for enrolments to decline, with people saying that they "do not believe in" school any more, but despite this the educational environment in Burkina Faso is favourable. Indeed the reaction described above shows rather the desire of the population to be able to use a different kind of school and another form of education which will take more account of their everyday situations, needs and aspirations than the present form of schooling. They will no longer reject the idea of educating themselves and their children. This explains in part the growing importance attached to non-formal education in Burkina Faso, sometimes for its own sake, sometimes as an alternative to the conventional school, which is still searching for its place.

6. General adoption of Permanent Education

"Permanent education" expresses a genuine and historic need in Burkina Faso. It is not just a question of fashion; it is becoming more and more of an unavoidable alternative for obvious reasons :

initial under-enrolment of the population
persistent high rates of illiteracy
inadequate early formal education of the requisite quality
needs of the labour market, and occupational mobility
the fight against the relapse into illiteracy
instilling a spirit of learning
the need to learn how to learn
the rapid development of the demands of modern life, and of the knowledge needed for life in society; and the world-wide spread of information about human problems and worries.

There is considerable potential, which needs to be exploited with care, and the political will is visible in ever-clearer support for permanent education which does and can take various forms, using different channels and support methods.

7.CONCLUSION: Problems in continuing education in Burkina Faso and future prospects

7.1. Problems

Alongside the formal framework of continuing education, which has problems with regard to structure, management and regular coordinated functioning, there are also many seminars and workshops which feature in the daily lives of national institutions, both public and private. On average, two or three seminars or national or international workshops take place in Burkina Faso every day. The diversity of the technical sectors concerned is so wide that it almost seems that if these seminars and workshops were better structured and coordinated, they could actually fill the gaps and improve the continuing education coverage in Burkina Faso.

However, they are mostly organised for the benefit of one or other of the various sectors of activity, and accept people for periods of between three days and several weeks in order to give them the benefit of very specific training and updating, or an introduction to a new sector in terms of knowledge or know-how. The tutors, who are often foreign experts, are competent within their fields, and provide support for participants who are expected, after their training, to be able to integrate their new knowledge into their socio-economic activities so that they become rational and profitable.

Thus seminars are organised for the various sectors, such as the trades unions, management, administration, agriculture, customs, education, computers, and for the benefit of participants from very different levels of technical education. Evaluation sheets are sometimes distributed at the end of the training, and they usually say that "a careful and lasting exploitation of the newly-acquired skills will be made" wherever possible.

In this kind of situation the evaluation of continuing education is particularly sensitive and difficult: it is hard to follow up seminar participants, who switch from one seminar to another on the same theme in order to deepen their knowledge; levels of participants' early education are not the same; and there is no structure or coordination between the seminars and the workshops. But despite all this it is quite valid to say that even if these seminars and workshops do not constitute full continuing education in themselves, they can and should be integrated into an all-embracing policy for continuing education for the benefit of workers in both the private and public sectors. This principle should decide how they are planned, organised and conducted.

In the economic make-up of Burkina Faso the informal sector is extremely important; the rate of school enrolment is low, as is the level of workers' initial education, which should include any necessary technical and practical skills. All this indicates that continuing education should be reinforced and should either replace or strengthen "learning on the job". Continuing education is seen as something necessary, a "historic phenomenon" peculiar to modern life. It is unfortunate that practical and economic constraints limit its expansion as well as its organisation and practice. There are also constraints as regards the actual teaching, and it is notable too that there is a lack of coherent political will about it.

7.2. Future prospects

The need for contiuing education exists, and indeed it is very strong. More and more private companies, such as banks and companies concerned with technology, are paying for training services for their employees, or set aside certain amounts for training in their budgets. The State, which is equally concerned about education, imposes taxes on these companies in order to create and guarantee continuing education (payroll taxes).

Certain views are receiving increasing support in official regulations and documents. The Etats Généraux de l'Education, which was set up in 1994, stated through the Vocational Training Commission that the Vocational Schools and the Training Centres should be rationalised by the development of better educational and practical management and by closer integration of these centres with the structures for initial training and education, in other words, schools and the University.

The University is expected to play an important part in this, and consequently there are plans to re-equip it and adapt it to the requirements of work and the national economy. Although some doubts were expressed by the academic staff, the system of the special University entrance examination is to be retained, and computer links have been set up for the purpose of continuing education and distance teaching.

There are also, of course, the new audio-visual methods, such as television and television teaching, which should also be used systematically for the purposes of continuing education.

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Chapter 11

GLOBAL INDICATORS TO THE TRANSITION OF LIFELONG LEARNING IN SOUTH AFRICA

by Samuel ISSACS

INTRODUCTION

Thirteen months after the first democratic elections in South Africa, the Minister of Education Prof.Sebusiso Bhengu said in the Education Budget Address in the National Assembly on 25 May 1995:

"I have to reaffirm that the transformation of the education and training system has only begun. Our task is to bring redress, establish quality, open the doors of opportunity enable a true culture of learning and teaching to take root, strive for ever-higher levels of performance - and achieve all this cost-effectively goals will demand political will, public comment, and professional integrity of the highest order."

This aptly describes the state of the reconstruction and development of learning in South Africa. The inequalities and injustices of apartheid education and training are being tackled head on through a number of legislative and administrative strategies. These are best summed up in the Department of Education's Annual Report (May 1996, p12):

Some achievements of the Department

Since its establishment, the Department has put in place the basic building blocks necessary for fundamentally transforming the education and training system. These include:

- approval of the department structure in October 1994 and appointment of the majority of the management echelon by mid-1995
- facilitating the establishment of provincial departments of education in May 1995 and the provincialisation of education services (other than universities and thechnikon) in line with the Interim Constitution
- release of the White Paper on Education and Training, which Provides the policy framework for the transformation of the education and training system, after its approval by Cabinet in February 1995
- creating an efficient secretariat for the Council of Education Ministers and Heads of Education Departments Committee
- initiation of a wide variety of policy investigations and feasibility studies which flow from the White Paper and which are critical for the implementation of the policy framework
- developing, of the National Education Policy Bill and (in co-operation with the Department of Labor and stockholders of the South African Qualifications Authority Act
- maintaining open channels of communication with the university and technikon sectors, a wide range of stockholder bodies in education and training, and the public at large
- building the basis of confidence for effective operation of the Education Labor Relations Council and bilateral communication with the national teachers' organizations
- developing partnerships between the Department and private sector, international community and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the planning resourcing and provision of education and training

With these and other initiatives, the foundations for the transformation of the education and training system are now firmly in place.

Key administrative strategies involved the transition to national and provincial departments and establishing co-operation between them. This is an herculean and complex task, given the situation where nine non-racial provincial departments had to be rationalised out of fifteen apartheid education departments which cut across the few provincial boundaries, former "homelands" and "independent states" (Department of Education Annual Report 1996, p16) . In April 1995 when the previous apartheid inter-departmental structure was formally dissolved a Heads of Education Departments Committee(HEDCOM) was established. It consists of the Director-General and Deputy-Director of the National Departments of Education and meets monthly. A Council of Education Ministers (CEM) has been established and it also meets monthly to receive HEDCOM reports and to co-ordinate educational development at the provincial level. The CEM consists of the Minister, Deputy Minister and Provincial Members of the Executive Committee responsible for education.

Key legislative strategies are contained in the following key policy developments:

- White Paper on Reconstruction and Development
- White Paper on Education and Training
- The National Education Policy Bill
- The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act
- The National Commission of Higher Education
- South Africa Schools Bill
- National Education Management Information System
- National Student Financial Aid Scheme for Higher Education
- Developmental Initiatives:
  - Curriculum Development
  - Language Policy
  - Science and Mathematics
  - Early Childhood Development
  - Adult Basic Education and Training
  - Special Education Needs

Central to the architecture of transformation is the

National Qualifications Framework (NQF) which will make it possible for all learners irrespective of their age to realize the goal of lifelong learning. (Department of Education Annual Report 1996, p23). The development and implementation of the NQF is the function of SAQA which was established by SAQA Act (4 October 1995).

The NQF is a social construction of gain proportions and impacts both in terms of vision, range and context. It affords South Africa a unique opportunity to advance lifelong learning for all South Africans.

The objectives of the NQF are spelt out in clause 2 of the SAQA Act. These are:

(a) create an integrated national framework for learning achievements;
(b) facilitate access to, mobility and progression within education, training and career paths;
(c) enhance the quality of education and training;
(d) accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities; and thereby
(e) contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large.

The SAQA Act's history is best illustrated in Figure 1 overleap. The idea of National Qualifications Framework is developed during the period 1990-1994 by the Non-government Organizations (NGOs) and the National Training Board (NTB). Two major policy documents appear in 1994.

The NTB published its National Training Strategy Initiative (NTSI) in April, the month of the first democratic elections in South Africa. The NQF is firmly proposed as a necessary policy option. The Center for Education Policy Development (CEPD) published the Implementation Plan for Education and Training IPET) is going to be implemented (and by whom), and under what conditions it can be implemented successfully . (IPET Introduction, p.iii).

The commitment to the development and implementation of the NQF through the SAQA is clearly articulated in this document. Other important publications that influence the debate are:

* National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) 1990-1992
* ANC's Ready to Govern (RtG) 1992
* Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) Participatory Research Project (PRP) 1993
* ANC's PFET 1994 draft

The Government of National Unity (GNU) published the following two seminal white papers that clearly indicated its intention with regard to the NQF:

* White Paper on the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) 1994
* White Paper It had been envisaged in the drafting of IPET that there would be a on Education and Training (WPET) 1995

Ministry of Education and Training, but the GNU yielded a Ministry of Education and a Ministry of Labour under whose auspices Training fell, and an integrated approach to Education and Training. Since both ministries were committed to the NQF an Inter-Ministerial Working Group (IMWG) was established to draft and facilitate the NQF BILL. This Bill became the SAQA ACT on 4 October 1995.

Figure 2 gives a timeline from the promulgation of the Act to the present.

An update of SAQA decision taken thus far follows:

MERGING AREAS OF CONSENSUS ON THE CURRENT STATE OF CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK (AQF): DECISIONS

1. THE FRAMEWORK

1.1 Levels

DECISION : SAQA 0202/96

In order to enable SAQA to proceed with the creation of an NQF, SAQA adopts an eight-level framework, with Levels 1 and 8 respectively being regarded as open-ended. Level 1 accommodates three Adult Basis Education and Training (ABET) certification levels.

1.2 Bands

DECISION:SAQA 0203/96

The NQA recognize General Education and Training (covering Level 1 and below), Further Education and Training (covering levels 2 to 4), and Higher Education and Training (covering Level 5 and above) as descriptive terms encapsulating levels of education and training in South Africa.

1.3 Critical Cross-Field Education and Training Outcomes (Short title:Critical Outcomes) and Essential Outcomes

DECISION :SAQA 0204/96

It was decided that the term "Critical Cross-Field Education and Training Outcomes "(Short Title:Critical

Outcomes) would be adopted instead "Essential Outcomes" , and that these would be applied in the following context:

"In order to enable SAQA to proceed with the creation of an NQF, SAQA and its work in the development of the NQF aims to facilitate the democratic transformation of the national education and training system into one which serves the needs and interests of all the people of South Africa and upholds their fondamental rights. Through the creation of an integrated national framework for learning achievements, SAQA ensures the facilitation of access to , mobility and progression within education and training and career paths.

Furthermore it ensures the enhancement of the quality of education and training, the acceleration of redress of past unfair discrimination in education training and employment opportunities, thereby contributing to the full personal development each leaner and the social and economic development of the nation at large.

this vision intends that all qualifications and hence leaning prograammes and unit standards should give attention to the critical outcomes, since thy are critical for the development of the capacity outcomes within a single unit standard. However it may be possible to incorporate one or more of the critical outcomes in specific outcomes and assessment criteria. Writers of unit standards should have the Critical Outcomes at had and try to accommodate them when constructing unit standards without creating an artificial situation. The Critical Outcomes the are given attention within a unit standard should be highlighted within the "Notes" category of the unit standard.

At registration, proposers of qualifications must ensure that all Critical Outcomes have been addressed appropriate at the level concerned within the proposed qualification. Should any critical outcome not be incorporated proposers of the qualification will be required to justify the exclusion to the satisfaction of SAQA before the qualification is registered.

The following are Critical Outcomes that can successfully be embedded within unit standards:

1. Identify and solve problems in which responses display that responsible decision using critical and creatve thinking have been made.
2. work effectively with others as a member of a tram, group, organization, community.
3. organise and manage oneself and one's activities responsibly and effectively.
4. Collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information.
5. Communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation.
6. Use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environments and health of others.
7. Demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related system by recognizing that problem solving context do not exist in isolation.

In order to contibute to the full personal development of each leaner and social and economic development of the society at large, it must b the intention underlying any programme of learning to make an individual aware of the importance of:

1. Reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively;
2. Participating as responsible citizens in the life of local, national and global communities;
3. being culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social context;
4. exploring education and career opportunities , and
5. Developing entrepreneurial opportunities.

1.4 Level Descriptors

A working committee was appointed in terms of SAQA Decision 0205/96

1.5 Fields

DECISION: SAQA 0206/96

In order to enable SAQA to proceed with the creation of an AQF, the following be adopted by SAQA as the organizing fields of the AQF:

01 Agriculture and Nature Conservation
02 Culture and Arts
03 Business , Commerce and Management Studies
04 Communication Studies and Language
05 Education, Training and Development
06 Manufacturing, Engineering and Technology
07 Human and Social Studies
08 Law, Military Science and Security
09 Health Sciences and Social Services
10 Physical, Mathematical, Computer and Life Sciences
11 Service
12 Physical Planning and Construction

1.6 Qualifications

A working committee was appointed in terms of SAQA Decision 0207/96/

1.7 Unit Standards

DECISION: SAQA 0208/96

The purpose of a Unit Standard is to provide:
- an assessor's document;
- a learner's guide and
- an educator's guide for the preparation of learning material.

A Unit Standard should consist of:
1. a unit standard title
2. a SAQA approval logo
3. a unit standard number
4. a unit standard level on the NQF
5. the credit attached to the unit standard
6. the field and sub-field of the unit standard
7. the issue date
8. the review date
9. purpose of the unit standard
10. learning assumed to be in place before this unit standard is commenced
11. specific outcomes to be assessed
12. assessment criteria
13. accreditation process(including moderation) for the unit standard
14. range statements as a general guide for the scope, context, and level being used for this unit which:

15.1 must include critical cross-field outcomes supported by the nit standard;
15.2 should include references to essential embedded knowledge if not addressed under Assessment Criteria (Item12), and
15.3 may include other supplementary information on the unit standard.

1.8 Credit

DECISION: SAQA 0209/96

SAQA accept a credit system on the basic of 1 credit equaling 10 notional hours of learning, motivated in context in each case.

2. STRUCTURES

2.1 NATIONAL STANDARDS BODIES (NSBs)

Nominations are being invited from national stockholders comprising key interest groups operating in the 12 organizing fields adopted by SAQA.

2.2 EDUCATION AND TRAINING QUALITY ASSURANCE BODIES (ETQAs)

The executive committee of SAQA has been asked to discuss this matter further and report on 10 October 1996.

Life wide development of lifelong learning and the changing relation between education policies on labour, social, and cultural affairs

Central to the NQA are the following:

- involvement of all the relevant sectors/stockholders
- articulation and co-operation between different learning providers
- development and implementation by pilot
- accelerating the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities, and thereby contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large

The Department of Labour has released a draft discussion document that foreshadows a Green Paper on a New Integrated Human Resource Development Strategy for South Africa. The Director-General of Labour, Mr. Sipho Pityana said in an address to the Nation Consultative Conference on Community Colleges(18-19 September 1996):

> At the heart of our new perspective is a strategic approach to professional and vocational education and training , and employment services to promote access to and mobility in the labour market, in a way which promotes growth and development.

Included in his address were the following transparencies:

- Figure3 - New Integrated HRD Strategy: Some key definitions
- Figure 4 - Goverbance of Sector Education and Training Sectors (SETOs)
- Figure 5 - Summary of the New Integrated HRD Strategy
- Figure 6 - Governance: National HRD Council
- Figure 7 - HRD Council's relationship to SAQA
- Figure 8 - Financing the Strategy: South Africa's Investment record for industry based training
- Figure 9 - Financing the Strategy : Conclusions

From the above the emerging co-ordination of the government's policies are evident/ Similarly the Macro-Economic Plan for South Africa reflects this:

Financial Constraints

Already approximately 23% of the national budget is spent on education and substantial increase are unlikely. The 1995/6 budget is as follows:

Universities	R 3066,5m	9,7%	380 184 students
Technikons	R 1006,3m	3,2%	179 801 students
Private ordinary schools	R 318,0m	1,0%	171 692 students
Other education sectors	R 26 262,4m	86,1%	11 804 041 students
TOTALS	**R31 653,2m**	**100,0%**	

(Department of Education Annual Report 1996, p53,82,84,86)

Given the need to expand provision in Higher Education and Training, Adult Basic Education and Training, Early Childhood Development and the transformation of the system as a whole, reprioritisation of spending and partnerships with relevant stockholders. This must prevent unnecessary duplication and fragmentation (hallmarks of apartheid structures) as well as provide quality assurance strategies which deliver cost-effective, efficient, and quality education and training for all.

The building for capacity to develop, implement and maintain the NQF needs to occur within such constraints.

Patterns of resistance

Universities are concerned about Unit Standards, but are supportive of SAQA and NQA. Other assumptions will also be challenged (eg outcomes-based education and training).

There are difficulties related transformation and change management. The need to build capacity and learn is often cause for resistance.

There will be contestations over various bodies of the NQA, especially the ETQAs and NSBs.

Internationalization

Global competitiveness and the need to obtain a 6% growth rate at least to reduce unemployment has resulted in a number of HRD strated aimed at a high skill-high wage economy and presents specific provisioning challenges to the education and training system.

FIGURE 1

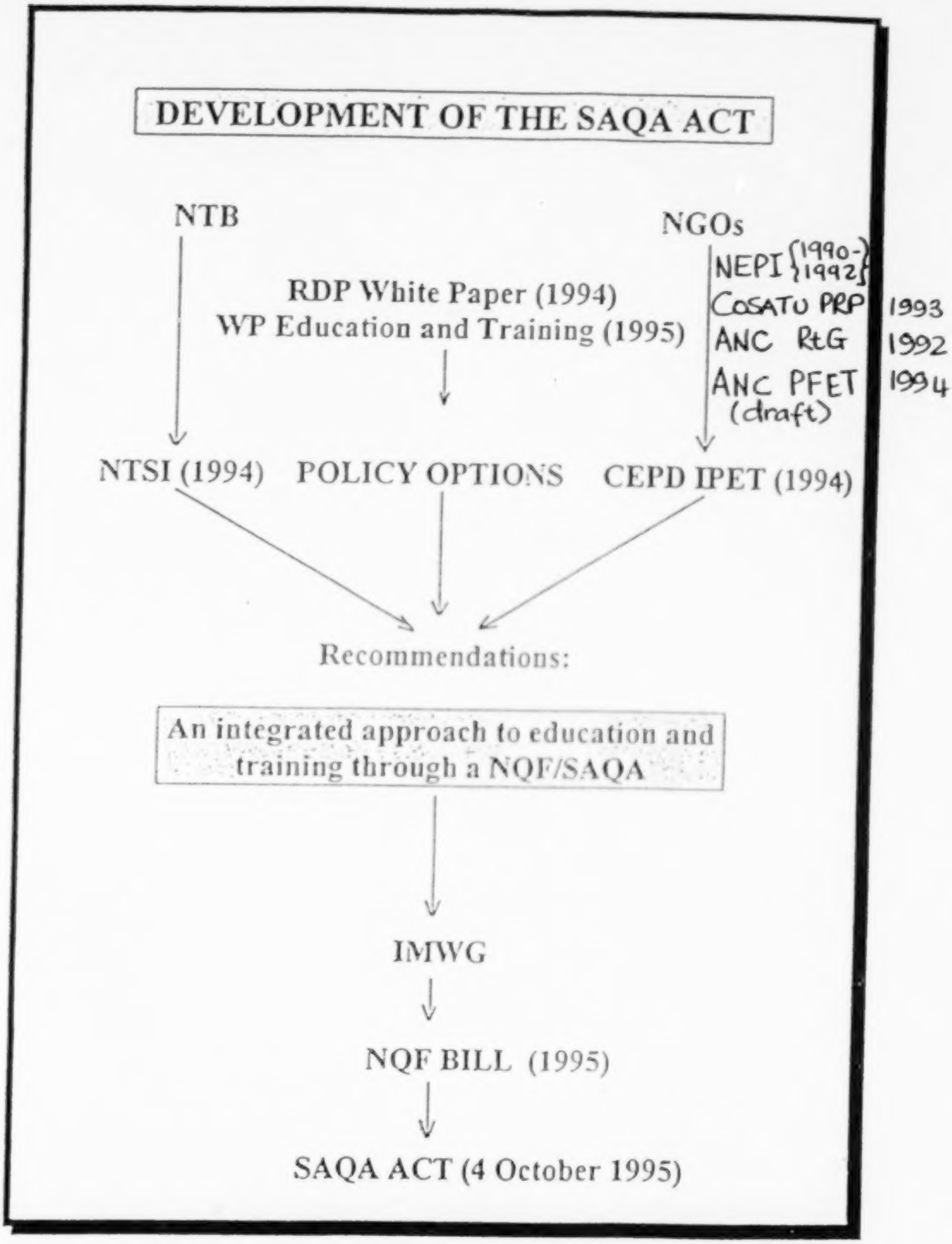

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SAQA ACT
NTB
NGOs
NEPI (1990-1992)
RDP White Paper (1994)
WP Education and Training (1995)
COSATU PRP 1993
ANC RtG 1992
ANC PFET (draft) 1994
NTSI (1994)
POLICY OPTIONS
CEPD IPET (1994)
Recommendations:
An integrated approach to education and training through a NQF/SAQA
IMWG
NQF BILL (1995)
SAQA ACT (4 October 1995)

FIGURE 2

GOVERNMENT GAZETTES
CONCERNING SAQA

DATE	GAZETTE NO.	SUBJECT
04/10/95	16725	SAQA ACT
22/12/95	16873	NOMINATIONS
31/05/96	17227	SAQA MEMBERS

02-04/8/96 FIRST SAQA MEETING

02-03/9/96 SECOND SAQA MEETING

298

FIGURE 3

New Integrated HRD Strategy

- By strategic approach, we mean linked to the future and not the past
- By demand-led, we mean demanded by the imperatives for rising productivity and competitiveness
- Skill formation, in a sufficiently enabling environment, must both be responsive to these needs, but can also be a catalyst for these changes

FIGURE 4

Governance of SETO: 20 Sectors

- Finance and insurance
- Public Service (internal)
- Primary Agriculture
- Sport, Arts and Artistic Crafts
- Defence, security, justice and correctional services
- Education
- Tourism and hospitality
- Health
- Building and civil engineering
- Mining and energy
- Chemical and allied
- Posts, telecommunications, broadcasting and IT
- Transport
- Water affairs
- Welfare
- Auto, motor, metal, engineering and electrical
- Food and drink
- Textile, clothing and footwear
- Newspaper, paper, printing and packaging
- Retail and service

FIGURE 5

New Integrated HRD Strategy

IN SUMMARY, THE HRD STRATEGY AIMS TO:

Promote HRD as a catalyst for growth and development by:

1. Encouraging enterprises and industry to plan for skills that will optimise growth.
2. Encouraging government departments to plan and invest in skills which promote sustainable growth and development.
3. Promoting a partnership between government and the private sector to facilitate new entrants into the labour market and support new emerging enterprises.

FIGURE 6

Governance

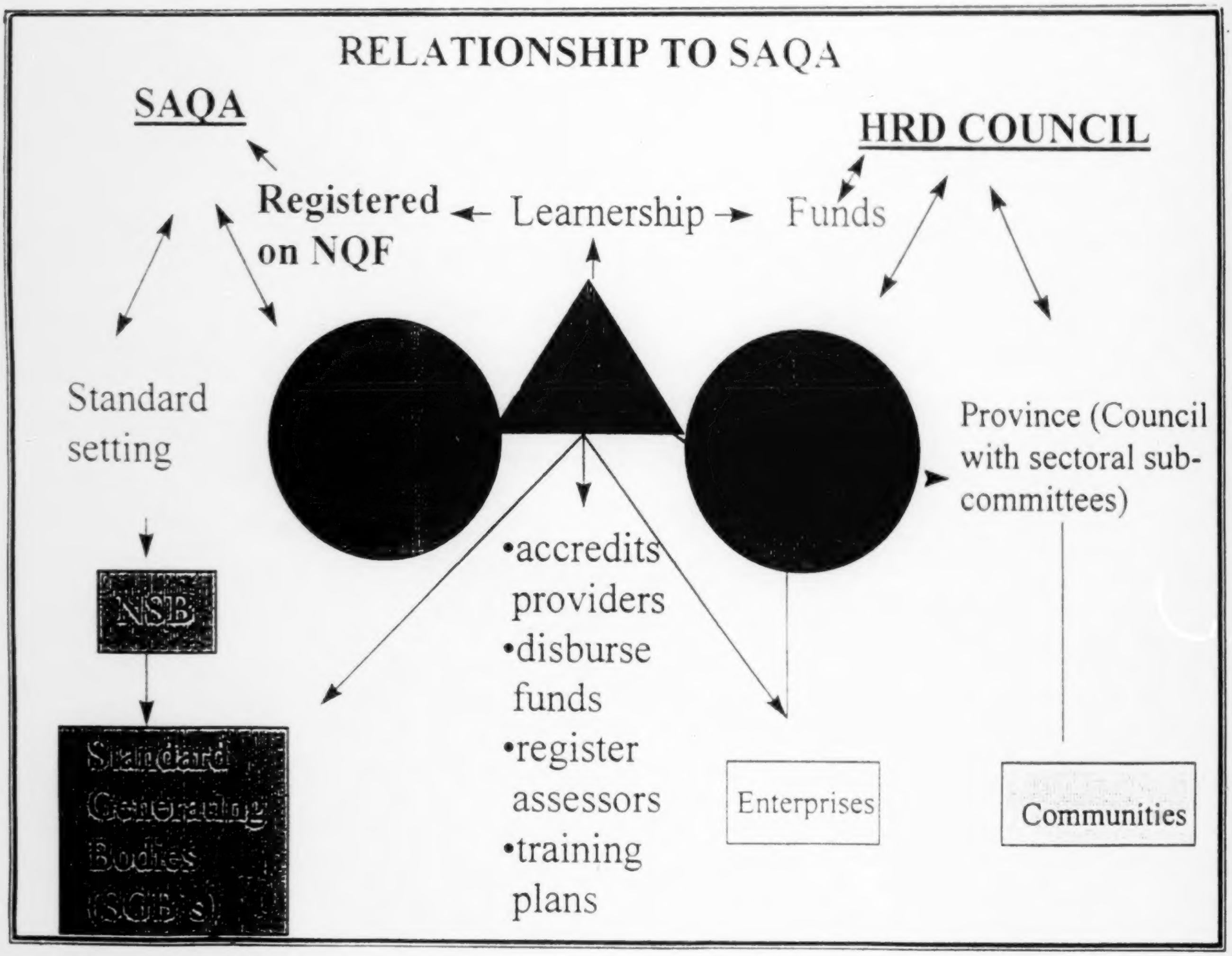
NATIONAL HRD COUNCIL

- Political Authority

FUNCTIONS

- Advise the Minister on Policy
- Prepare Draft HRD Strategy
- Submit draft for political approval
- Implement HRD Strategy once approved
- Recognise SETO's and PAC's
- National Training Fund
- Consult with SETO's and PAC's

FIGURE 7



RELATIONSHIP TO SAQA

SAQA
HRD COUNCIL
Registered on NQF
Learnership
Funds
Standard setting
Province (Council with sectoral sub-committees)
NSB
Standard Generating Bodies (SGB's)
•accredits providers
•disburse funds
•register assessors
•training plans
Enterprises
Communities

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

FIGURE 8

Financing the Strategy

I. SOUTH AFRICA'S INVESTMENT RECORD

1. Industry based training

- Aggregate training expenditure not as low as usually reported
- Low compared to main trading partners at 4 to 6%
- Key sectors spend only 2% or less
- Incidence of training comparable with other developing economies
- But 56% of small firms do no or only informal training
- 42% of all firms spend less than 1%, 65% less than 2%
- Evidence shows structured training heavily focused at higher occupations
- Artisan training dropped from 13 000 in 1985 to 4000 in 1994
- Shortage of quality management in the country

FIGURE 9

Financing the Strategy

Conclusions:

- Key sectors training at uncompetitive levels
- High proportion of firms spending at below 2% of payroll
- High proportion of firms doing only informal training
- Limited focus on structured training for occupations at the lower end of the spectrum
- Evidence is worrying given the importance of structured training to competitiveness
- Need for paradigm shift towards more strategic, structured enterprise training

PART TWO

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE ISSUES

(Edited by Yukiko Sawano, Kumiko Iwasaki and Masafumi Tanaka)

Following is the synthesis of the discussion made during the NIER-UIE International Seminar on Transitions Towards Lifelong Learning, based on the country reports submitted from each of the participating countries. Issues were put forward based on comparative analysis made on the situations in different countries using the five sets of indicators.

I. Initial Education

1. Accessibility and retention

In the case of countries where formal initial education is already modernized and stabilized, and expansion and equality has already been attained, there seems to be new problems emerging from the system itself. In Japan, there are many problems of children who are inadequate for the system, and there is the problem of dropouts from upper secondary schools, despite the fact that dropping out is adisadvantage for them in their later lives. (Sawano)

Burkina Faso is a peculiar case among the participants in this seminar. The enrollment rate in schools is only 20-24%, and the majority of pupils do not stay in school more than five years. Therefore, in order to improve lifelong learning, we need to increase the participation in initial education. This is a case where there are too many crucial problems before discussing about lifelong education at a higher level. (Badini)

Inequality of access to the initial education is a serious handicap in developing educational biography. There must be a new way to standardize the issue of nonformal dimensions of formal initial education to socialize. The learning environments are the key. There is a famous international assessment study which suggested that the number of books at home has become a key indicator of reading and writing skills of children. All debates on learning centers and reading centers as importantelements of the initial education should be articulated.(Bélanger)

2. Learning environments in the initial phase of the lifelong learning biography

School education should offer children the basics. But we should consider not only the formal school education but also the entire learning environment, especially non-formal initial education. Because the wider the experience of the younger generation, the wider will their perspective of the learning become in their later lives. (Sawano)

We can say that one of the best areas to initiate lifelong learning environment is the initial education. But to create this in a very potential manner, we have to introduce the concept of articulation.

Children can better understand lifelong learning if we can introduce, in schools, in the family, in the society, in the workplace, the possibility to articulate in the learning environment in a systematic manner. Non-formal initial education and formal initial education are two parts of the articulated system. Articulation is one of the principles of the lifelong learning system. Despite various experiences in different countries and different personal backgrounds, one of the key points that can promote environments is the lifelong learning proposals. And the concept of articulation can demonstrate huge possibilities for the first step in the system. (Didriksson)

The toy industry is a key element of the lifelong learning policy and globalization of the toy industry should also be looked at carefully in our lifelong learning research. More precisely, we are dealing with learning, rather than education. All those elements in a country like Japan,which is playing a key role in the toy industry of the world, this is certainly a crucial element. We have become too much used to controlling industry analysis in sociology, and we have bypassed this crucial element of the learning environment of people.(Bélanger)

3. School and Community in the Context of Decentralization

Articulation of the components in the community and all the organizations would be one of the best conceptual keys to reorganize our formal traditional systems in the lifelong learning environment. The community participation, direction, elaboration, and administration could be the best way to reorganize the initial education, not only as a form of formal education but also of social education in the formal system. (Didriksson)

The balance between local and national, local and global is really more dialectical than just for local, or just for global. However, the relationship among all these are difficult. (Bélanger)

In European countries, there is a strong tendency toward decentralization in the initial education and a better coöperation between school and community has developed. But I do not know what decentralization means, what the effects are, whether or not there are negative effects in terms of equal opportunities. We discuss decentralization very positively at the moment,but this seems to be very ambivalent. (Jütte)

Schools have been decentralized and the social differences are increasing.In the city of Stockholm, the schools look very different from other areas, and this is seen both negatively and positively. The question is how to build a community while we are still able to build our own national standards. It is the question of how free the initial education is.Whether we like it or not, education is probably the fairest place for sorting or selecting people. It is more fair than family or money. The problem is, if we look closer at our countries, how do these different cases that we have had the function of sorting and what possibilities are there to lessen the negative effects and

still having a system which is more fair than family or money. (Rubenson)

The school must be open to the community and the community must be in the school. The school cannot solve the problem only by itself and must be an open system to the community. (Paquet)

One needs to define what one means by "quality" of education. This seems to me a set of questions around quality of education provision, whether it is done in the home, in the community or whatever. When you actually go to decentralize, it does not really enable people to move into the society, it actually keeps in very often in particular clauses in that society.(Isaacs)

In two Latin American cases of new school in Columbia and "Nova Scola" in Brazil, the power structure of the initial education is in the hands of children and their mothers. The administration's decision-making process is exclusively in the hands of the sector. This is significant in the sense that such new schools with a democratic decision-making process have relations with the community and organizations. It is important to create a special sense of responsibility within children for school buildings and environments. (Didriksson)

4. Role of Family in Initial Education

The initial education is done not only in school, both in developing and developed countries. The initial education starts with the family. Parents need to know how to take care of their children and raise them in a good way. When parents have to work and they do not have enough time to take care of children, we have to have some program by parents to take care of their children for that period of time.(Masaeng)

In our country, what is missing in the process of preschool education is the existence of mother. If mother is working, there is no space for contact with children and no space for education. That is why we need to discuss community and family separately. (Hubík)

Although re-finding the education power of the family is different from the questions of equality or quality of education, strengthening the educational power of the family is crucial. Parental education must be reorganized as well. (Yamada)

The discussion of the role of mother has to do with the distinction of role between men and women. Certainly, initial education has a lot to do with the distinction of roles. We need to consider this issue in the sense that in some countries there is a movement that women should be back home.(Bélanger)

There is famous "lonely children" research in Sweden. Researchers had followed individuals from the age one to 15 or 16 and the results showed that a good preschool system compensate for the time when they are away from their mother or father. A question raised when we talk about the initial education is that to what extent a good day-care preschool system compensates for certain activities that they could learn in other places.(Rubenson)

There is a fantastic research in Israel on the ward of "kibbutz" in the early learning phases of life that also can give us the idea in a very persuasive way. In Czech Republic, "creches" service to women have completely been jeopardized by recent policies and all the structures allowing women the right to work and the right to participate have been put in disruption by this new policy. (Bélanger)

5. Content of Initial Education

We need to allow children in the initial education to express creativity that everybody has in the sense of democracy, and to build their own knowledge and their own biographies, instead of facing down on the mainstream knowledge and just consuming knowledge. (Giere)

The first phase of the learning biography of an individual which is from 0 month to 7 years is a fantastic learning period of life. This is the period of developing emotional intelligence, which is an important part of intelligence. The first 5 years of life are certainly crucial for that. More dramatic element is violence. It is silent violence which is taking place by refusing to create environments for them. We have to enhance communication. All these areas of research are related to children psychiatry and children psychology. It is a huge area of debate. (Belanger)

Starting to learn another language in the initial education is the best way to understand other culture. This is a principle of internationalization, or understanding other cultures. The problem is not that native English speakers do not understand another language, but that they can not understand other cultures. This is a principle to understand international efforts to view another world. (Didriksson)

In initial education, we have a big problem with school curricula. We always have a struggle between our own culture and other international cultures. Another struggle is seen between the modern culture and traditional culture. The problem is how to keep our culture within children in initial education. We are losing our ethnic culture in the modernizing process of our society. (Yamamoto)

In the U.S.A., there is a huge debate on the quality of initial education as well as literacy between the cultural literacy concept and "back to basics."It is a reconstruction of the concept of initial education concerning the national culture. Certainly, insecurity of national culture in front of the globalization of culture, is a big issue that can leave to us. We need a proposal, or a new reconstructive approach or a more dialectical one. It is a big issue in all countries. (Bélanger)

Normally school education, particularly in case of initial education, they impose a rigid framework of curriculum, how many subjects taught in which year, and in which grade. But in case of lifelong education, we should propose liberalization in certain areas and should look at initial problems of initial education, how certain countries could liberalize their initial education. Then we need to measure to what extent, what contents they work successfully to make liberalization. (Higuchi)

Liberalization is a good thing but a full responsibility is required. It must be mentioned concretely.(Hubík)

II. Tertiary Education

1. Question of Accessibility

The university sector does provide an important opportunity for continuing lifelong learning for the segment of the population which is lucky enough to gain admission. Universities have an obligation to make themselves accessible to a wider population, which has been the case in the past. The question is that the participation rate of 32 or 35% of today is whether some kind of maximum or just a transitional phase on the way to 100%. (Candy)

Is there a little in the impediment condition that only 20, 35% or 40% of accessibility needs to be 100%? A line between the university and the society is what are different patterns for this diversification of the region, and then we have a good formation of technology on post-compulsory education. (Bélanger)

The participation rate around 20 to 30% depends on the ratio of graduates at the compulsory level in a period of scarcity of resources.The part of the answer is to diversify activities and the way the university offer programs and activities, by means of part-time activities, or to open the university to those who have not completed the previous level of education. New technologies seem to be also an important answer to open the university without asking much more resources. (Paquet)

2. Changing Relation between the University, Community and Society

Universities will compromise exertions through more extensive collaboration with other parts of the social fabric. If we undertake more and more commission and research or teaching of shareholders, that will disable them as social critics and prevent them from being able to form a role of standing outside, to one side of social processes or cooperative processes. Likewise, if universities give credit to people who are coming in without the normal advantages of the secondary education, or giving credit for prior experiential learning, which is an example of a seamless transition from one kind of learning to another, it does not in fact means that university or higher education is no longer higher. That is somehow rather being compromised by reference to other learning experiences.(Candy)

It is neither a problem of legislative environment nor a problem of financing. There is the other triangle problem of a shift from education to learning. What are the ultimate opportunities we can offer to busy and successful people, who cannot be enrolled in university studies.Here is a very important question which can give directions to select goals, and topics. The dialogue line between the teacher and students is insufficient, but we need a triangle causes of teacher-student and various sectors of public or social industry policy. (Hubík)

The world has drastically changed these days. The question is how can we make lecturers or professors at universities realize that they have to change their goals to share with the community or society more than ever before. (Masaeng)

Universities or higher educational institutions are the most dynamic part to create a new lifelong learning system. They are taking a leading role in the educational system, where the impact of science and technology is stronger and where professionals and high-level technicians can create possibilities to organize and nourish our learning society.If institutions have a stronger impact on productivity and national competitiveness, knowledge production and technology transfer can happen. That is why the university and higher education system are quite important in lifelong learning. But if the university wants to be a dynamic part of lifelong learning, it has to change quite rapidly. In UNESCO terms, in the next decade universities have to change profoundly to be a dynamic part of this knowledge of society in curriculum, career structure, administration, and the use of knowledge of resources.And it links the society with the economy. That is the reason why UNESCO say in the next ten years the majority of universities or higher educational institutions will change in all over the world. (Didriksson)

3. New Information Technology

Whether or not our university is going to survive in the era of the Internet is a question, because some students might become able to bypass universities or surpass them in their lifelong learning. The function falls to be credential institutions, and more seriously to the value of the people who enroll in them.(Candy)

In order to become ubiquitous providers of educational contents, universities should take leadership in making use of new technologies, and they are becoming globally wider to provide for the society. (Yamada)

4. Alternative Learning Opportunities at University and Post-compulsory Level

University or higher education is important on a broad basis, but we can also ask ourselves whether there is a limit to the higher education,regarding the time spent in education. In Germany, the time spent in higher education may be reduced, and we may have to set part of initial education in higher education in the future. Still there will be a structure because it cannot be expanded any more. (Jútte)

We need to refer to booming new kind of institutions that all of us have reported. There are lots of those new types of colleges and universities established, such as junior colleges, community colleges, and technical institutes. These are important dimensions of post-secondary education.(Bélanger)

5. Diversification of the Role of Universities

University is exclusively a lifelong learning field. In the 19th century the university was not ordered to take adults, but nowadays we often go to university because we are adults. University is designed to assure lifelong learning. But now if we consider focusing on a country like Burkina Faso, where universities are not developed, and where there is 1% of attendance rate, university can have a critical role in lifelong education, and in accepting older people who want to improve their knowledge about cultural situations. In our country, university contributes to the literacy campaign in rural areas and that works for people who want to improve their illiteracy situation. It will be a big problem if the academic education does not see social education. Sometimes there is a conflict or hostility between the two forces of education and that is a big problem to consider, if we have to solve the problems of lifelong education. (Badini)

There is an issue concerning diversification, which involves the access of non-traditional students to the university. (Puigvert)

If university is becoming diversified, we have to correct our statistics in such a way that it can follow the impact of these for various groups.Then we can answer the question that who does what and what happens to those who choose. What is the critical role of university in the society which should be maintained? Historically universities have been very important in the civil society. Particularly, by questioning decisions that have been taken in a democratic way, the university is the only institution that can be given the role to question democratically-taken decisions. However, because of the changes in the discipline,universities might be just becoming a part of the social system and losing its critical function in the society for debates. (Rubenson)

As for the social role of university, our research defined it as generating knowledge, developing universities and practicing research in lifelong education. (Giere)

Whether current academic disciplines will survive in universities is a big question. It is arbitrary in an artificial way dividing up the universal knowledge and what we know about the development of new knowledge is that it is actually interdisciplinary and problem-oriented.What may be a recent hope on the new production of knowledge indicates that disciplines probably do that faculties will have clear indications on the way the universities organize themselves. (Candy)

The university has a role to recruit educators or trainers for lifelong learning. In the faculty of education at certain university in Hokkaido area in Japan, the number of students is decreasing, and both faculty and the faculty member are disappearing. The faculty, therefore,have planned to take the role of staff development. (Yamamoto)

6. Credentialism of Universities

Concerning the critical role of the university in the society,credentialism is a major problem. People go to university to get a degree. What kind of degree they get or what degree tends to be useful often becomes a problem to the learners. This is a question around the role of the university. It would take them to play this critical role and it has also given people useless credential that does not have a quality. That is a well-placed question, but there is a concern in that area. There are also people coming to the system under a false pretext.(Isaacs)

7. Extension Services for Adults

There is a question of internal organizations in the forms like continuing education centers, or extension department versus regular departments in the unit of organization. These seems to be more efficient in relating both the crossover between continuing education and regular education.In Canada and Sweden, there is a debate whether or not we can see any difference in how responsible university or higher education is,depending on these internal organizations. In my opinion, extension departments are not in accordance with the notion of lifelong learning.(Rubenson)

In Japan, though regular courses have been well-established, extension courses are rather new. Therefore, it is clearly recognized that instructors or professors in charge of extension courses tend to be devaluated compared with professors teaching regular courses. It is also the question of the articulation between the secondary education and higher education. Younger students in Japan directly proceed from upper-secondary to higher education. In a learning society, when adults or socially-handicapped adults, who have had lower schooling proceed to universities, they need some measures of assessing not only results of academic records but experiences gained in the workplace. These new measures should be developed. (Kajita)

8. Diversification of Financing of University

Lifelong learning should be mainstreamed. There is lots of moves toward taking up these extension of the courses.There is a financial imperative to generate fund. What you already have is an exploitation of a market opposed to providing lifelong learning opportunities and that is causing the real tension in how you provide lifelong learning opportunities. It has been exploited and created lack of capacity in lifelong learning. They are putting adult basic education in the workplace which are competing with NGOs and others, and they are state-funded at the same time.(Isaacs)

9. International Cooperation

International cooperation is a critical issue. In terms of transition to lifelong learning, the universities have to collaborate with each other,among continents, institutions and countries in making a project on science and technology articulating curricula and creating popular joint graduate programs. One of the best ways to go to the lifelong learning environment seems to be the university's approach to create this kind of international cooperation among them. (Didriksson)

The new program in the European Union is to foster collaboration between universities. The ERASMUS program is promoting exchanges of students and teachers, and joint Ph.D. programs in a very strong and concrete way. (Bélanger)

III. Adult Education and Training

1. Goals for Adult Education and Training

Each country may have different goals of their own in adult education, such as industrial development and encouragement of the civil society. In Japan, however, the idea is rather vague and there are very few discussions and reports on this theme. I feel that promoting lifelong learning itself is a major goal in Japan. (Tanaka)

A serious problem is recognition of adult education. After you undertake continuing education and has a learning effect to get a job and other things, this is a main issue. Maybe there are possibilities for adapting education to labor market policies, so that after continuing education you will find a job. But at the moment there is not sufficient recognition at all. (Jútte)

As for quality of further life improvement in adult education, people need to improve their lives, even if they are learning from their environments and learning from the society. We could emphasize life improvement by way of lifelong education tools. (Masaeng)

2. Self-education and Policy of Demand

People have to learn everything that develops so fast in the advancement of technology and science. The question is how the people and all sectors such as NGO and governmental organizations can give some opportunities to adults, by providing an environment for them and designing programs for them. And the important thing for people is that how they can realize that they want to learn for their whole lives. (Masaeng)

The target of lifelong education could be encouraging initiative to upgrade themselves. So lifelong education is not on the side of educators, but rather, in the hand of beneficiaries. (Higuchi)

An important transition is a shift from the policy of provision toward the policy of demand. Important investment in adult learning is to construct a new infrastructure of self-learning in many ways with lots of new facilities. (Belanger)

It is necessary to create harmony between the individual and the society. In the traditional Japanese society, the society had a superpower over individuals. But now in the modern age, individualism has become rather strong. A discussion on the relationship between the individual and the society is much needed for us. (Tanaka)

The question of self-education is an important one, but we could also look at it from the point of view of collective self-education. It seems that we have a contrast of formal, non-formal schooling in the society, but we have also to look at what role various social movements can play for collective mobilization, because the notion of individualization that can be observed in many countries may have very little impact on the society without this kind of collective mobilization to self-education. (Rubenson)

3. Equality in Adult Learning

We have seen in different reports that some form of activities are linked to liberal market or job market, which is quite important. But there is another sector, which is regressing and the access is quite limited for those who are undereducated. It seems that if we tend to the social role of the state, another dedication is an issue to be considered. (Paquet)

4. Adult Education as Non-formal Education

Now the Department of Non-formal Education has been set up in Thailand, and there are a variety of courses for people who cannot go to school. The department is responsible for formal education such as literacy program for those who cannot read or write. Another kind of program that can be arranged for adults is skill training. Skill training is for people who usually earn money but temporarily unemployed, and it's like a vocational training. Another thing is informal education. All kinds of news and information are provided for people in the form of newspapers. We have arranged book donation for people at libraries all over Thailand. Some television programs are designed for adults, which are education programs or programs they can have for their lives. So there are three kinds of education styles that can be arranged for adults. (Masaeng)

In Japan, what people expect from lifelong education is something that they could not find in school education. People, especially senior citizens, may be looking for the meaning of life, which school education cannot reach or cannot offer to them. In case of Thailand, lifelong education or non-formal education is a kind of alternative to formal education. (Higuchi)

5. Diversity of Provision and Partnership among Organizations

Organizational corporation is important. For example, corporation between the public sector and private sector, between the education sector and non-education sector and so on. In that respect, we are at a stage of trial and error in Japan. (Tanaka)

The partners should be employers and unions, and also NGOs should be partners for that kind of partnership with educational institutions. Partners should be quite open so that it's not only schools, or school should consult with some other partners. It should be a large partnership with a broad mandatory role. (Paquet)

Diversity of providers is important. Adult education has now many providers, and here also NGOs play an important role in community education, civic education, and a part of activities, which we also have to consider. (Paquet)

Governmental, non-governmental organizations, trade unions, and educational actors, all are partners that are now being adopted with lots of expenses. Lifelong learning councils, and new kinds of mechanisms are emerging in many countries. The actors are more and more numerous on the scene. (Bélanger)

6. Aging Society and Inter-generation Dimension

The connection between adult education and initial education is important. In South Africa, they spend a lot of time providing early childhood education, but they do nothing for parents. We probably need it equally. So it is a matter of how do we balance or coordinate these things together, so that we will get a better result. (Isaacs)

When we say an aged society, sometimes people misunderstand it. Now senior citizens are coming to the end of their lives with no future. An aged society could be very traditional. But on the contrary, senior citizens are still looking for their future and learning something new. So, from the standpoint of lifelong learning, we should call it a futuristic society, not an aged society.(Higuchi)

7. Differences between Developing and Industrialized Countries

Problems in adult education in developing countries and in industrialized countries are very important. In industrialized countries, the aging society is coming, but the situation is quite different when it comes to adult education in developing countries. The focus in the aging society is more on leisure, or learn many things like cultural aspects, capabilities to protect themselves. But in developing countries, education is more linked with work. We have to differentiate those situations. (Didriksson)

IV. Learning Environments

1. What is 'Learning Environment' ?

The definition of learning environment is not clear at the moment, and the definition of learning enterprises is not clear enough, either. Here, we should not only discuss about learning organizations but also look at what is happening outside the educational institutions. And what we can observe at the moment could be expressed as "pedagogization" of society, which means that learning and pedagogical aspects are penetrating all areas of life. For example, talk shows on television,crime movies and so on deal with life in a very sensitive way. If we look at our environments, we may find a lot of examples. Though a crime story is not pedagogical in itself, it could be an invitation to lifelong learning. (Jütte)

We tend to refer only to libraries and museums as learning environments in our lives. I am much concerned about TV movies with lots of violence. Those programs have stronger effects on people than things they learn at libraries. Nowadays in Japan parents are complaining that their daughters don't know how to cook scrambled eggs, or their children don't know how to use chopsticks. So we should regard what resources we have as learning environments, perhaps family, movies, and other things. And in lifelong education, our targets are usually only libraries and museums. We need other resources and we should aim at other targets. (Higuchi)

We might be able to identify environments in terms of roles of people.We can ask, to what extent can people act in the environment where they are. That is the definition also of how much you can learn, and they can observe learning. Would we ask how valid it is, or how much control people have. One way would be looking at concepts like variation control and they are within their activities. Closed various segments,that is to say, what control do we have with what kind of themes we are seeing. I think we have to look at some ways of finding certain concepts that can be close. This is rather to define an environment that also can be close, or can be used, if we want to start and give empirical measurements and quality of measurements in some countries. (Rubenson)

2. Supply and Demand Model of Lifelong Learning

One thing that is interesting to consider is to what extent the present debate on lifelong learning is defined as a supply problem. Supply in terms of whether we have the right kind of people, rather than whether it should be defined as a demand problem. What is the structure of the civic society and the economy in which we live, and what demands do they make? We could classify the society in which we live, and the different roles, its demands and structures. According to a literacy survey, we could see how much people use their reading abilities in their work and expand their abilities in the civic society. And then we could look at the structure in different societies, classify them and look at what are the consequences of people's motivation of learning,rather than looking at it as more of a supply problem, without looking in what conditions they are motivated. (Rubenson)

Many people tend to think about lifelong learning in the context of the demand-and-supply model, which is a capitalistic model. Who decides a demand? And who decides a supply? There is a hypothesis of the development model, or the market model. We are facing big global issues such as ecology crisis, which cannot be solved by the model of demand and supply.(Yamamoto)

3. Organization of Lifelong Environments

It is necessary to analyze who should organize the learning environments, and how they could be organized. According to a research, there are a lot of people who do not participate in any kind of activities, because they do not have people who tell about these activities to them. Sometimes we should analyze how people give information to those who in need and to whom the information actually goes. (Puigvert)

4. Boundaries of Learning Environments

There is an interesting work that has been done on a situated cognition,in the learning mitigate context. For many of us, working in formal settings or at least bounded settings are not familiar. There is a research which shows how a lot of learning cues are inadequate in the context of environment. There is also a work on the social distribution of knowledge, which indicates the fact that it is not always individuals who learn and know that advantages of learning always come to one person. In any work place there are often fragments of total stories spread across people who are working together. And learning by one can involve learning by all. There is another work on this boundaries of the organization. I think we tend to think of learning contexts as being relatively, automatically shielded from their environments.But increasingly information is passing across these boundaries in a seamless way above directions. And the thing learning people have to do is to break the boundaries; anticipate them and to do away with the boundaries. It is not bounded either by organizational or disciplinary fragments. (Candy)

In UNESCO we have huge boundaries between the cultural section of UNESCO and the educational section of UNESCO. And this is making the research on this issue extremely difficult. There is a fantastic project going on in UNESCO on libraries, on mobile libraries, on new forms of virtual libraries with terminals and lots of opportunities for reading centers and learning centers, on pedagogy on museum; on a new approach to museum, on communication, but there is no link between this and education. In some countries this kind of division of work across ministries is making the research of this area very difficult. We in UNESCO are collecting primitive data on learning environments, such as number of books per country per capita, and the number of people attending museums. We may need to transfer our indicators in a much richer way, to deal with the issue of learning environment in a much proper way. We need to enrich our indicator in learning environment, and we need to certainly be in the pursuit of this research project, to explore ways to enrich our analysis of the learning environment. If we say that learning environment has to do with stimulation of creativity, with stimulation of curiosity, with questions, we have to analyze more of what kind of community, or organizational, or family environments is indeed inducing this. What are the substitution mechanisms? What kind of day-care centers are producing this? In fact, researches on day-care centers are fascinating, they are not as negative as one would like them to be. And this is extremely interesting, what kind of early childhood approach are creating better results or stimulation of creativity? A lot should be done in all these areas of research. (Belanger)

5. Relation between Learning Environment and Culture

What is the relation between learning environment and culture? The answer must be quite different and difficult. To put together our ideas on learning environment. The question of whether there is a connection between learning and environment, maybe by culture? And the institution of initial education. Maybe we can ask all participants from countries where initial education is less developed by number, but they have a rich tradition of learning environment when tradition is part of the knowledge, and this is a question to ask ourselves to answer. (Jútte)

We have discussed earlier about the danger or fear of loss of tradition in cultures. And in this context it would be nice to make clear that a lot of countries have already multi-culture societies, and this is not a threat to the traditional culture, but it is an enrichment of learning environment. You do not have to learn a second language only to get a job, but maybe it is a form to get a rich learning environment and you can enter a new culture for your own life, and all those changes will get you close to a multi-cultural society. (Jütte)

There is also the problem of languages; what languages are used in a matter of learning environments . That is a problem for us. (Badini)

6. Communication Media

We do have a learning environment, but the question is how to learn? We learn by communication, perhaps. So, learning environment is much related to communication media. We always think of communication media as literature, letters or characters. But we have more communication media, which are languages. The report from Sweden shows that people are talking and discussing everywhere, and they have more chances of discussion than Japanese in their studies. Debates or communication is very important for learning environments. We have many kinds of communication media, such as literature, oral communication, electric communication, and visual communication. These media give us more learning opportunities. But the situation does not allow learning results. In traditional Japanese society, men tend to have more power than women, and men think they should not speak out. There is not a mood of communication, which is not a learning environment, but a ruling situation. (Yamada)

7. Hidden Curriculum

Environments are not only material things like telephones and others, but also, and maybe in the first place, they are the communicative codes, cultural codes, which motivate people to use these material things. (Hubík)

8. Family and the Community as a Learning Environment--Issue of Conviviality

People learn how to live, first of all, in the family. And after that they learn how to live in the community and the society. Even in the country, they learn how to live together. That is the environment for the people in the world, which is very important. Even in the cross-culture, different from nation to nation, the environment comes down to people. (Masaeng)

There is a little place in Barcelona where people go and receive and give different kinds of cooperative activities. That could be education as formal education or non-formal education, and what they do is, they decide on their own by communicating in consideration of their life description. In this way they receive the kind of things they think they need in their daily lives. Learning environments may be a description of communication between people,trying to know what they need for themselves, organizing teams, and deciding what kind of things they need for their communication. (Puigvert)

9. Link between Learning Environment and Life Environment

Learning environment might be able to change life environment and power structures, etc. And that is not only reproduction of the life environment. When we deal with learning environment, which deals with daily world, life world, with a lot of concepts. But of course, as teachers or educators, we have to accept the life world and only to take into account the life world of the learner. Of course it is important to take part in an educational process, but the idea is also to overcome all changes, things that are also obvious, view of the life world become critical to change the structure. Therefore, we need a learning environment which enables us all to change the actual life environment of the learner. (Jütte)

The power of learning can change the real situation. But there is a big problem that we have; that is barrier. We have many barriers, such as a barrier between men and women, barrier between the old and the young, barrier between countries, and barrier between languages. But education and learning has a power to change and keep the barrier, because education have two aspects; one aspect is to keep the barrier. For example, a major function of education is evaluation. The act of evaluation by the ruler. Here the term ruler has two meanings, which are scale, and ruling. Teachers use scales - for scolding their students and for scoring the tests. And this scale controls many students and controls their power. On the other hand, this power of scale can be changed; learner themselves change its power according to their situation by self-directed evaluation. Evaluation as well as education have two aspects, which are to change the situation and keep the situation. So the question is which way we use for education; changing the situation, or keeping the situation for the ruler, or the ruling class. (Yamamoto)

10. Learner's Curiosity

It is said that a person with a sense of wonder tends to be a quick learner. And there is a story of a father speaking to his two sons, and one of them, he's got a twinkle in his eyes. And it seems to me what one in a learning environment has to do is to put a twinkle in the learner's eyes. And it seems to me that we have somehow lost the culture of dialectical validity to ask questions, and validity to debate those questions. There are lots of learning environments that actually just stifle the process. And we need to learn to put that back. (Isaacs)

11. Policy Issue and Learning Environment

There is a link between learning environments and political situations, because learning environment could be a consequences of a political situation. (Badini)

In one report of UNESCO evaluating the years of education for all proposals since 1975 at a meeting in Thailand in 1985, UNESCO proposals on education follow the latest report in these years. This report says that learning environments in different countries are bad. Education for all is not a reality. In the year 2000, we will have more illiterate people, more people outside school, more children without possibilities to go to school. Why? Because the governments, the society, did not create a social environment, or social communication environment to promote this kind of purposes. So this is a real concern in our discussions on lifelong learning systems. If we want to promote this transition, first we must be very critical about policies that do not make efforts to promote learning environments. (Didriksson)

12. International Perspective of Learning Environment

We are in a trend to realize learning environments, and we are forming economic blocs. Japan in the Pacific area, Europe, and North America, Mexico, the United States, Canada, and maybe Chile, and other countries.They are strong economic blocs, but exclusive blocs. In North American bloc, they do not want to do anything with Central America, with Bolivia, with Venezuela, and so on. Of course, Europeans do not want to have an operational relationship with African or Middle East countries.Also the Japanese bloc don't want to create a strong bloc with China,Vietnam, Laos, or Cambodia. So we are concentrating on science and technology, possibilities of technology transfer and knowledge transfer,telecommunications, all instruments to promote learning environments, in all over the world. There is a hope for governmental efforts to promote education for all, not an exclusive education or learning society, and on the other hand, to solve the problem of polarization, creation of exclusive blocs in the world. (Didriksson)

V. Global Lifelong Learning Orientation

1. Legal Provision of Lifelong Learning

A number of countries have passed national legislation in terms of lifelong learning. There are probably three indicators that would be very important. One is ownership of those laws in terms of democratic participation in the making of those laws, then people actually appropriating the fix of those laws. The second indicator would be academic or international critique or scrutiny of the laws and the effects of those laws. The third indicator, which is one that causes many laws not to be fully implemented, is the resource of those laws. So the kind of resources that are appropriated for those laws would be another important indicator. The real danger about all those national laws is the fact that they appear to be useful in matching a kind of panacea or a kind of utopia without actually delivering for the learners, to deliver lifelong learning. We have a number of other indicators that would also be important. To monitor these new laws of breaking old barriers to lifelong learning, but they are also creating new barriers; one of those barriers is the question of equality and inequality. All these new laws are going to enhance equality or are they going to create other kinds of inequality. (Issacs)

How comprehensive are the laws on lifelong learning? We have to look at which sectors are involved, because all that we would see in the example from Thailand, which seems to be most far-reaching that we've heard about, it is educational activities that are defined. And we have to look closely at to what extent do comprehensive policies also involve understanding the policy of contexts, in which this learning takes place. We have to look, if we want to look comparatively, at the different structure of the public sectors. That will explain to a certain extent what is possible within these contexts. (Rubenson)

It is necessary for us to look at how we are going to do longitudinal studies of the effects of those laws concerning lifelong learning over the period of time. Many of these laws are new laws passed within the past three or four years. And we need to find easy ways to track learners and also the environmental change that is simultaneously occurring. (Issacs)

2. Quality of Lifelong Learning

It is necessary for us to develop a whole set of meaningful indicators of quality. Because very often we talk about levels of education as having increased, but we say very little about what that actually means internationally and in the changing world. So we need to refine our indicators around the issues of quality. And I don't think that, I saw 9,000, for example, is sufficiently comprehensive to cover the kind of quality that we are looking for in terms of developing lifelong learning. (Issacs)

3. Advancing Culture of Lifelong Learning

There may be two kinds of areas of advancing a culture of lifelong learning. The change of curriculum, how people learn and what they learn is highly important. It is the problem of how we embed the culture of lifelong learning in the curriculum. But at the same time, the cultural reinforcement that takes place, some societies carry learning forward as a prime value, and others are not able to do that. It is necessary for us to give that area a lot of attention. (Issacs)

4. Reorganization of Educational Institutions

We have heard a lot about the change that would happen at universities, but I think they are also probably placing our society for new institutional forms. We saw that there was an extensive set of learning centers in Thailand, for example. But it is the reinvention of institutions or new institutional forms, and I think this relates to the first area of the national laws. Is this a basic way forward? We need to ask some critical questions around the kind of institutions we have.(Issacs)

5. Monitoring of New Policy Model

We have traditionally looked at things like market models versus policy models. That is not enough now. Within a policy model we must look at a comprehensive policy model versus, what we could call, "itemized policy" model. When we look at these and then taking another step, one thing that has been striking is the fact that none of the country reports we have seen in this seminar mentioned how the country is monitoring this.We have some examples of how we monitor each sector. But no report develops a discussion around the monitoring of these new concepts. And it seems that we have to ask ourselves, should this take place, what are the implications for the kind of statistics that we organized? What are the implications for institutes like the one we are in now? What are the implications for the National Education Board and the National Board of Statistics in Sweden? And I think we have to think about that very seriously, because our ability to discuss it is governed and structured by that kind of information that we get. I think we would all ask to see to what extent is there any articulation of things taking place. I think that would be a very important issue for us in the global sector.(Rubenson)

6. Initial Curricula from the Perspective of Lifelong Learning

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We should notice that all the sectors are becoming global, in the sense that these country reports presented here give a lot of food for thought about some common development. This should be under international critique. To take one example, I have been struck by how Australia, Japan and Sweden, in their initial curricula, have expressed of the notion about the need for the students in the future to be able to act and interpret the situation while acting into it. But there is not very much in our reports how this has been articulated; what does it really mean in the curricula, how do we really get the students to enter in their life span, what does it mean in their everyday life of education? And I would suggest that we have here possibilities to look through our reports to find out, and another obvious similar thing is around the different models that are evolving. (Rubenson)

7. Conceptualization of the Civil Society Model

Also we had some very interesting suggestions for how to conceptualize the civil society model and others. We should discuss to what extent do our comprehensive policies drive in one way or other directions. But then we also have to look at the outcomes. One way of looking at this, both comparatively and globally within the country, might be to say that we have to get some way of empirically handling the context, the broader context, as well as the specific context. We have to have a way to measure activities only in terms of numbers and so on, but also activities in terms of equality, the character of these activities. And finally we have to find a common way of looking at the outcasts. It would be necessary to urge each country to look at what kind of different information and different sectors do we get, how far can we come with that and how far do we have to take the outcasts. (Rubenson)

In addition to the policy model and market model in lifelong learning activities and lifelong learning system, there is, as Mr. Tanaka says,the citizenship model. In the background of such models, we have a social value system or human value system. And such a value system moves us to learn, and moves us to something. Such a system is very important when we think about lifelong learning. For example, I work for my income as well as for a little sense of mission. This kind of motivation is very important in lifelong learning. We Japanese in older times were very poor, but nowadays we have an ethnic pride as Japanese. We have dignity as human beings. Such pride and dignity are very important to move and change the society. Americans have a frontier spirit, for example, and each country has its unique spirit of its own. Such value systems are moving and changing the situation toward the lifelong learning system in each country. (Yamamoto)

There are three types of policy models for lifelong learning. First, a market-oriented policy model, or industrial society model. Secondly, a welfare-oriented model or what could be called as a welfare state model.And thirdly, a citizen's-activity-oriented model, or what could be called as a civil society model. According to what I understand, the civil society model is rather vague in Japan nowadays. And people in the community would like to learn more of hobbies, sports and recreational programs. Those programs are mainly offered by municipalities, but the civil society model is still at an invisible state in Japan. But in my opinion, in the future it will be very important because the international society and the Japanese society as part of the international society will have to change our values and lifestyles.(Tanaka)

There are three groups of people; one is the people working in the government sector. All such people are concerned about lifelong education, but you can arrange programs, or you can arrange to involve more people. And another group is the people, who cannot be involved in education and who cannot develop their idea of education. They have to think about lifelong learning, not lifelong education. And a very important thing is that we have to think about the vision or in what direction the world is moving in the future. If we think about education as a learning system for the near future, or what the world is going to be, like Mr. Tanaka said, there are three models concerning the vision toward the future. (Masaeng)

8. Changing Roles of the State

What is similarly coming out of all the country reports, and of the Japanese report and others on the changing roles of the state on the education scene. And we have expressed that in many ways that the state is no more mainly in this new perspective of lifelong learning. But rather in the area of which we generate policies of environment,policies of demand, and so forth. Also this idea of transversal role it was fascinating in the video from Thailand, this kind of recurrent team,the Ministry of Labor, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Environment, and so forth. This is coming very strongly also in many country reports, the transversal role of the state in this new general economy of lifelong learning. More profound transformation of the role of the state is found in the way from the top-down welfare state system, but also away from sheer, neo-conservative privatization concept where the citizens have responsibilities. The citizens also have rights, and the state is taking care of both the dimension of rights and that of responsibilities of learning . Responsibilities of learning without rights are not delivering any possibilities for learning, and all this kind of new equilibrium between rights and responsibilities. (Bélanger)

Lifelong learning could be considered an integrated principle which must influence initial education and further education, formal and non-formal. In Japan as far as in 1984 the National Council of Educational Reform was established, and it was under the authority of the Prime Minister. It seems that Mr. Nakasone was a precursor in this area. He was well inspired to take it. At the same time, questioning to see such a candidate in outside the departments of education, and we can understand that it was a way to ask all department questions from the broader perspective in that candidate. It seems that it was made to have many effects in the law in 1990 and further, what was created as centers not only for civic education but in different sectors. (Paquet)

The formation of the National Council of Educational Reform under then-Prime Minister Nakasone was quite unique as Dr. Paquet has mentioned, because in Japan we have about 20 central ministries in the central government. The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture is one of them. And each Ministry has its own several councils, but this particular council was established within the Prime Minister's office.Therefore, as is written in the country report on Japan, this National Council of Educational Reform is much more powerful than councils established in other Ministries, such as the Central Council for Education which is under the Ministry of Education , Science and Culture. (Kajita)

9. Social Movement on Lifelong Learning

There are, however, two dimensions where a few are missing; one is what are the social forces at work in all of our countries, for different kinds of models, patterns, or orientations of lifelong learning. For example, the role of social movements among the aging population. In lots of countries, Switzerland and many others, there are now new values, regarding the active policy concept of the aging population, completely changing the social demand for learning. The role in the economy, there are different forces at work, when we are observing the reality. Some economic sectors are more dynamic than others, and some sectors are really in deep crisis, not playing an active role. We need to understand what is happening in these areas. Also the role of trade unions, the role of the women's movement. Certainly in lots of countries, the women's movement is completely changing the overall perspective of lifelong learning. (Bélanger)

10. Importance of International Research on Lifelong Learning

Research has an important role to play across boundaries on probability of lifelong learning. For example, all the research done on learning organizations needs to be reconstructed to understand the learning environment in the community and the family. All the research done on the liberation of productive forces in the economy needs to be reconstructed to understand the importance of the liberation of creative forces in the areas of health and so forth. A big issue here is the extension of lifelong learning across countries which is creating a completely new challenge. In lots of countries, a fantastic new amount of money is being invested in health education and environmental education. However, when you look carefully at this new immense amount of resources available, the pedagogical approach is extremely conservative at top-down. This kind of "Information, education, communication" strategy, as they call them "I.E.C." strategies, now being financed by WHO, by the World Bank, by FAO, and so forth, are very often extremely top-down communication system, and we also need that to transfer the pedagogical reflections in order to revitalize these new opportunities for learning in all those areas, and in order to create their real sustainable learning activities that would be a huge challenge in the areas of health education, environmental education, population education, and health and safety education and so forth.(Bélanger)

Lifelong learning has good educational policies everywhere, in developing countries and developed countries. And this is useful for countries that have a lot of illiterate people, and in contrast, also for Japan and Sweden for example, where everyone is well educated. So we need to articulate different actors, agencies, centers, institutions, and resources to improve the understanding of the concept and reinforce the word "lifelong learning" through a cooperative international network. (Didriksson)

11. Misconception of Lifelong Learning

A new idea, new perspective of lifelong learning, different from permanent or recurrent education or different concepts in the past, has penetrated in the cases presented by all the countries. The case studies demonstrate that lifelong learning idea now is part of the formal policies in the educational system, and part of the interests of the civil society in our countries, in different ways, but is now part of the social context, very important official policies, the states' policies. But as a new concept, there are misconceptions in a different ways. Some people understand lifelong learning as just adult education or education and training for adults or social participation of the civil society. Different groups understand it to improve women's participation in education, or to develop home skills or social skills, and so on. We cannot understand this because we do not need a straight definition. In our countries we work to promote real processes, and then we will construct a conceptual background. But we need first real experiences.These processes are covering all levels and structures of the educational system, but less of the society. If we want to expand the lifelong learning process, we have to transcend, or go forward, the formal educational system in the society. (Didriksson)

Even in Japan, lifelong learning is considered just as social education. That kind of understanding is prevalent among the public, not only the general public but also among educators in Japan. (Kajita)

12. Equality and Solidarity

What we could learn from the business society is that we must keep looking at what are good for people. Lifelong learning should be oriented to improve levels of skills and competence of people, in order to pinpoint in what kind of sectors they belong to, which is now the tendency of the business society. That will decrease, not increase, the different situation between the rich and the poor, at least in the academic level. We should take into account lifelong learning under the provisional sector. (Puigvert)

In lifelong learning and education there is a questioning issue on equality . You can say in another way that it is a questioning on exclusion and solidarity. And I do think that the equality issue is a solidarity issue. In case of Canada, we are putting most of the money in the neighbor market approach, and that way, it is a question, because the demand is exploding but resources are allocated playing against equality, against some kind of groups. In that sense, it is deeply against solidarity. It is really important that the partnership perspective with trade unions and lawyers, social movements, popular movements, and also educational institutions should be set up so that the principles, orientations, mandates, and activities would be evolved to be an answers to the needs of individuals, and the needs of different interest groups. I do think that it has to be something that is oriented outside the bureaucracy of the department. (Paquet)

There should be local solidarity and international solidarity in order to make lifelong learning a reality. For example, in Burkina Faso, where public education is not well developed, it is not a problem of the law. The problem is different. It is rather a financial and cultural one. If you see the reality of the national situation in Burkina Faso, it appears that lifelong learning is a need for the world's modern societies. But there are some main problems such as orientation for vocational training or academic education now. Academic education does not prefer lifelong learning according to their curricula. In order to enable a real lifelong learning, it might be necessary to make an educational city. So, what we have to take into consideration now is the solidarity actions for lifelong learning, for literacy and public education. (Badini)

13. Discourse on Lifelong Learning

There might be another way in order to look at lifelong learning; that is to try to understand how the discussion around lifelong learning is formed in itself. We are trying to find indicators, which are very important, but we have to understand the policies and other factors to see how the forces work. We have to get an understanding of discourse on adult education. Discourse works through people's way of thinking, policy makers and others, and I think we also have to look at historically how this discourse of discussion has changed, and what are the forces that form it. What are the underlying assumptions about quality and equality, what do they lead to. In order to form a policy or form an action, we have to have a better understanding that lifelong learning is an ideal of life at least by itself. (Rubenson)

14. Demographic Change

The demand and motivations for lifelong learning seem to depend on lifestages for individuals. Some countries including Japan are confronted with the issue of the aging society. In the context of lifelong learning, senior citizens', housewives' and students' motivation and demand are essentially different, so it might be necessary for us to specify and clarify people's demand and motivation from the view point of individuals' life stages . In that sense, it might be necessary to add the indicator for demographic changes or distribution in the society. (Iwasaki)

Annex 1

INDICATORS OF TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING

*QL=Qualitative indicators
*QT= Quantative indicators

1. Indicators Related to the Transformation of Initial Education

1.1. (QT,QL)The level of provision of pre-school education (in particular for the milieus remote to the school culture)
- age group, enrolment statistics (in relation to rural/urban,...)
- policy measures to guarantee the access to pre-school education
- ....

1.2. (QT.QL)The way the crisis and the inequalities of initial education are being exposed and dealt with in each society, since adult education participation is correlated to the level of initial education,
- national pattern of initial compulsory education (duration),
- out-of-school education system for youths (organization, institutions,etc.)
- statistics of participation:
    1) primary level:
    2) secondary level
    3) access to post-compulsory education
- policy measures to guarantee the access to initial education (presence of affirmative measures)

1.3. Changes in the content, method and quality of initial education towards a lifelong learning system

1.3.1. (QL) Whether creativity - the development of the learning potential of the young learner, of her or his autonomous capacity to go-on learning is being considered in the national debates on the quality of education.

1.3.2 (QL) Whether the lifelong dimension and the capacity for self-learning (learning to learn) is being considered in the national curriculum.

1.3.3 (QL) Whether basic preparation for social participation as citizen/civic education is being considered in the curriculum and extra school curriculum activities.

1.3.4 (QT,QL) Whether the role of the teacher, their qualification and training is changing

2. Indicator Related to the Transformation of Tertiary Education

2.1. (QT,QL) The enlargement of accessibility of universities and other institutions of tertiary education
- diversity of institutions and participation rate (by age, sex, race...)
- percentages of part-time students, of 'adult students' 25 years and over, of females students
- measures to guarantee the access of adults and/or young students without formal required diploma

- ....

2.2. (QL) Change in the content and method of teaching and learning
  - measures for the teachers and instructors to cope with the changing pattern of tertiary education
  - flexibility of time schedule
  - ....

2.3. (QT,QL) The transfer of content between initial and further education of university professionals

2.4. (QL) Cooperation between institutions of tertiary education and the community and industry
  - extension department
  - integration and non-integration within the community

2.5. (QT,QL) The present relation between the financing mechanisms and the transformation of the university clientele
  - full time equivalent quota
  - age quota system
  - lifelong learning conditions attached to location to grants
  - analysis of the discourse
  - ....

3. Indicators of the Changing Provision-participation Patterns to Adult Education and Training

3.1. (QT,QL) The way the "less visible" but increasing social demands for adult education are being monitored, articulated and responded by the different social groups and institutions.

Key indicators of changing adult education demand, provision and participation:

- institutional or programme statistics gathered from the relevant national statistical offices to obtain a comprehensive overview of major ADED/NFE programmes (including indistance education) available in each country, their characteristics in terms of type, field of study, level equivalent, capacity, number of participants, teachers or trainers,
- sample survey data on participation to organized adult learning opportunities describing the universe of learning activities in which the adult population in engaged
- short monograph on emerging learning needs not met yet through organized responses.
- measurers taken to monitor the needs of the disadvantaged groupes such as ethnic minorities, and to support them to participate in various learning opportunities

3.2. (QL) Changes in the organization, content and quality of adult education and training
  - provision of specific system for participation (part-time courses, correspondence, sandwich courses, etc.)
  - the shifting boundaries between general and vocational education
  - professionalization of adult educators (types and categories of teachers, trier qualification and training system)

3.3. (QL) Recognition and utilization of adult education achievement

- utilization of qualification/certification acquired in adult education
- impact of the achievement of adult education upon the condition of work (incl.. salary)
- indications of the contribution of adult learning to the community and the society
- recognizing of diploma and certification

3.4 (QT.QL) The transformation of work and the way the problem of the shrinking number of paid jobs, which remain a important path to adult education, is addressed and negotiated in each society,

- changing average duration of working time,
- statistics on training-within-industry in relation to size of firms, economic sectors, occupational status and age
- availability of incentives in relation to the work place
- shift from passive to active labor market policy
- the presence , in the national economic debate, of the issue of re-training the active population (whether and how adult education is becoming at the forefront of economic discourse of government,management and labor).
- ...

3.5 (QT,QL) The directions that being taken concerning the uses of the new social spaces created by the uneven increase of non-working-time; and whether the notion of productivity is beginning to be disentangled from paid work,

- inference from participation survey,
- flexibility of working time,
- adult learning on health, environment, population....

3.6 (QL) The way the critical life transitions are being experienced by peoples and "dealt with" by institutions.

3.6.1 The two critical work-related life transitions, from initial education to the active life and from paid work to retirement,

- inference from participation survey
- review of national studies on these two life-transitions,
- statistics on transition patterns from school to regular work status,
- statistics on transition pattern from regular work status to retirement.

3.6.2 The other critical life transitions in private life (migration, illness...),

- inference from participation survey,
- review of national studies,
- ...

3.7 (QL) The recomposition of the role the state and of the other actors in the provision of adult education, versus civil society and ways societal objectives, like equality or sustainability, construction and development of democratic society are attended,

- short monograph describing the different actors(public,Private, voluntary) and assessing whether and how communication and coordination is being developed between these actors,
    - changing role of the state and of the different ministries.

3.8 (QT) The changing patterns of funding adult/continuing education and training

- financial statistics on adult and continuing education, distinguishing the different sectors,

- the diversification of funding sources,
- the diversification of activities being funded,
- analysis of the discourse concerning alternative financing mechanisms(e.g. self-financing, individual entitlements, "parafiscal" funds)
- analysis of the discourse concerning the benefits to be expected from the educational investments at adult age,
- ....

3.9. (QL)Presence of incentives for participation

- paid educational leave, voucher, sabbatical, scholarship and other financial support such as partial exemption from taxation, etc....
- ....

3.10. (QL) The development of bridging mechanisms in the formal system and between formal and non-formal education

- prior learning accreditation services
- special credential policies for adults, etc.
- flexibility of re-entry, of getting diploma, in the formal system (special admission clause)
- "quota-system"
- .....

4. Indicators Related to the Learning Environments

4.1. (QL)The critical impact of the diverse learning environments on initial and adult education, by creating advantages or constrains. by stimulating or cooling our curiosity and participation

- reading practices
- presence of books or other learning sources at home or in the community
- the availability of information and counselling service for adults
- the issue of learning enterprises and learning cities or communities
- ...

4.2. (QT,QL)The impact of the media on educational participation and cultural practices; the accessibility of the other cultural institutions(museum, libraries, etc) and of the services and products of the cultural industries,

- the uses of electronic media
- accessibility and use of new information technology

4.3. (QL) Within or besides initial education and adult education, the emergence of educational alternative and innovative initiatives.

- use of out-of-school learning materials
- ....

4.4. (QL) The participation of the different social groups and sector in the debate and social negotiations regarding initial and adult education

4.5. (QL) Policy measures taken to secure various spaces and facilities for learning

- public libraries

- open-door of university libraries
- ...

5. Global Indicators Related the Transition of Lifelong Learning

5.1. Change of the formal education system and training system towards Lifelong Learning

- short monograph

5.2. The presence of lifelong learning in the official policies, and of explicit lifelong education policies and legislation,

- policies giving general orientation on LLL; policy statements, including laws, regulations, recommendations or reports
- creation of special LLL agencies or mechanisms.

5.3. The life-wide development of lifelong learning:

- involvement of other sectors:agriculture, culture, environment, health, labor, justice, population, etc.
- articulation and cooperation between different learning providers
- inference from participation survey relating organized learning, informal learning and cultural practices at different life phases,

5.4. Changing relation between education policies and policies on labor, social, and cultural affairs.

5.5. Indications of lack of effective lifelong learning policies or educational synergy

- financial constraints
- patterns of resistance
- ...

5.6. Process of internationalization and impact on national lifelong learning patterns and policies

- impact of global economy, migration, environment, provision of education....

Annex 2

PROGRAMME OF THE SEMINAR

Tuesday, 24 Sep.

10:00 - 11:00	Inaugural Session Opening address *by Yukihiko Hishimura, Director-General, NIER* Welcome address *by Toshio Mochizuki, Deput Secretary-Genera, Japanese National Commission for UNESCO, Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture* Representative address *by Paul Belanger, Director-General, UIE*
11:00 - 12:30	Country Report :Japan *by Yukiko Sawano,Kaori Kato, Masafumi Tanaka, Yoshihiro Yamamoto and Miharu Kajita*
13:30 - 14:30	Discussion on the Country Report of Japan
14:45 - 15:15	Country Report: Australia *by Philip Candy*
15:15 - 15:45	Country Report :Burkina Faso *by Amade Badini*
15:45 - 16:15	Country Report :Canada *by Pierre Paquet*
16:15 - 16:45	Country Report :Czech *by Stanislav Hubik*

Wednesday, 25 Sep.

09:30 - 10:00	Country Report : Germany *by Wolfgang Jutte*
10:00 - 10:30	Country Report: Mexico *by Axel Didriksson*
10:30 - 11:00	Country Report: South Africa *by Samuel Issacs*
11:15 - 11:45	Country Report : Spain *by Lidia Puigvert*
11:45 - 12:15	Country Report: Sweden *by Kjell Rubenson*
12:15 - 12:45	Country Report: Thailand *by Tippawan Masaeng*
14:00 - 14:45	Comparative analysis of country experiences (1) : Initial education (Resource persons: *Axel Didreksson / Amade Badini / Yukiko Sawano*)
14:45 - 15:30	Comparative analysis of country experiences (2) : Tertiary education (Resource persons: *Philip Candy / Stanislav Hubik*)
15:45 - 16:30	Comparative analysis of country experiences (3) : Adult education and training

(Resource persons: *Pierre Paquet / Tippawan Masaeng / Masafumi Tanaka)*

16:30 - 17:15 Comparative analysis of country experiences (4) : Learning environments
(Resource persons: *Wolfgang Jutte / Lidia Puigvert / Yoshihiro Yamamoto)*

17:15 - 17:45 Information on the 5th International Conference on Adult Education
by Paul Belanger

17:45 - 18:00 Video show : Lifelong Learning in Thailand

Thursday, 26 Sep.

09:30 - 10:30 Comparative analysis of country experiences (5) : Global lifelong learnig orientation
(Resource persons: *Kjel Rubenson / Samuel Isaacs / Miharu Kajita*)

10:30 - 10:45 Video show : Lifelong Learning in Japan

11:00 - 11:30 Consideration of joint research activities in the future

11:30 Closing addresses:

Masami Maki, Deputy Director-General, NIER

Paul Belanger, Director, UIE

Annex 3

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Annex 4

LIST OF STUDY VISITS

During the course of this study, interviews and meetings were made with researchers and administrators in charge of lifelong learning in the following countries.

1. Germany, Sweden, France

Researcher: Miharu Kajita
Period: September 29 to October 8, 1995
Purpose: Discussion of the plan of collaborative research project on the comparison of basic policies on lifelong learning with Unesco Institute of Edcuational Research (UIE) in Hamburg, Germany and study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in Sweden and France.

2. Italy

Researcher: Yoshihiro Yamamoto
Period: November 28 to December 4, 1995
Purpose: Discussion of the agenda of workshop on the collaborative research project on the comparison of basic policies on lifelong learning with Director-General of UIE and participation to the Global Conference on Lifelong Learning in Roma.

3. Germany

Researcher: Satoshi Kawanobe, Miharu Kajita, Yukiko Sawano
Period: February 5 to 11, 1995
Purpose: Workshop on collaborative research project on the comparison of basic policies on lifelong learning with UIE staff in Hamburg

4. Thailand

Researcher: Nobuya Higuchi, Kumiko Iwasaki,
Period: March 6 to 13, 1995
Purpose: Study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in Thailand.

5. Canada

Researcher: Miharu Kajita, Seiji Inoue
Period: March 6 to 13, 1995
Purpose: Study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in Canada.

6. Thailand

Researcher: Yoshiyuki Nagata
Period: February14 to 22, 1996
Purpose: Workshop on collaborative research project on the comparison of basic policies on lifelong learning at the Ministry of Education of Thailand and study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in Thailand.

7.U.S.A.

Researcher: Tatsuo Yamada
Period: March 3 to 13, 1996

Purpose: Study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in the USA.

8. Germany, Czech

Researcher: Miharu Kajita, Nobuya Higuchi
Period: March 17 to 24, 1996
Purpose: Discussion of the schedule and agenda on the NIER/UIE International Seminar on Transitions Towards Lifelong Learning and study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in Germany and Czech

9.Spain, France

Researcher: Yukiko Sawano, Kumiko Iwasaki
Period: March 23 to 31, 1996
Purpose: Study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in Spain and France

10. U.K., Sweden

Researcher: Satoshi Kawanobe, Masafumi Tanaka
Period: March 24 to 31, 1996
Purpose: Study visit on the current situation of lifleong learning policies in U.K. and Sweden

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